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Winslow THE INTEGRATED SCHOOL ART PROGRAM

GUIDANCE HANDBOOK FOR TEACHERS

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GUIDANCE HANDBOOK FOR TEACHERS

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Preface

This volume has grown out of a long-standing desire on the part of the authors to bring to actuality the idea that guidance is and should be the function of the homeroom and classroom teacher. They have been strengthened in their conviction by associations with teachers in university classes, in guidance workshops, and in the junior and senior high schools, who are generally willing and anxious to give more service to the individual pupil but who are checkmated in some cases by lack of experience and in nearly all cases by absence of the tools with which to work.

It is hardly expected that many teachers will give major emphasis to individual and group guidance along with their heavy schedules unless they have immediately at hand and in usable form the tools of their job. It is suggested here that if the best results are to be achieved in any school, every teacher's schedule should include one free period during the day when he can hold conferences with individual pupils, check on pupil records, and review quietly the needs of individuals and techniques for meeting them. This scheme seems much more logical than the one in which one person is given half or full time for guidance duties and all the re-

maning teachers have full class schedules. A dozen teachers with an enthusiasm for guidance add up to more than one full-time specialist.

This handbook is just what its name implies, a *hand* book. It is intended to make guidance work as easy as it is possible to make anything so important. The teacher who merely knows that the tools presented here are available *somewhere* may wish that they were easier to obtain, but he is hardly likely to write here and there for materials to put together in his work kit. Also, he may have a vague notion about certain ideas and materials but not enough definite information to justify their attempted use. This handbook gives concisely and clearly the philosophy of caring for the needs of the individual child and suggestions for doing the three things necessary in such a program: *getting the facts*, *evaluating the facts*, and *applying the facts*. The philosophy accepted is that real education is a scientific process and that guidance, or personnel work, as such is only an interim function to be exercised. The authors accept the inevitable conclusion that school pupils are as important and as worthy of scientific study as are persons confined in correctional institutions or members of the armed forces. When this concept has become an accepted axiom of our educational program, we may forget the terms "guidance," or "personnel service," and merely carry out these necessary functions as an integral part of our regular school program.

Both teachers and principals are advised to study this book thoroughly before attempting to put into practice many of the suggested activities. A school is not advised to attack the problem seriously until some time has been given to becoming acquainted with and enthusiastic about some of the fundamental activities described here. Activities which may be introduced early are

1. Inauguation of a testing program and administration of a pupil questionnaire.

2. Installation of cumulative records

3. Holding counseling interviews with pupils who are in special need of help

Other phases of the program should await thorough discussion in faculty meetings and committees. Direction of the program should be furnished by the principal or delegated by him to some faculty member with leadership ability and considerable understanding of the field. In order to facilitate this leadership, the *Guidance Manual for Principals* has been published by the McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., and should be in the hands of anyone who attempts to lead teachers in their guidance work with pupils. Too much emphasis cannot be given to the fact that adoption of this handbook will not guarantee a guidance program. That will come only with wise leadership and much cooperative discussion and searching for the truth. Under these circumstances the authors believe that this handbook may give a new impetus to guidance in our secondary schools.

Acknowledgment is made here to the many graduate students who have assisted, some of them without perhaps being aware of it, in the conception and preparation of this book. Their criticisms and creative suggestions have been responsible for many improvements over the earlier idea. Appreciation is extended to the numerous publishers and authors who have kindly allowed us to use their copyright materials, particularly to the International Textbook Company for permission to use certain materials previously published in *Pupil Personnel Service* by Davis *et al.*

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UNIT 1

The Meaning of Guidance

Sara was a girl of high general intelligence. The day for the report cards was at hand. Sara was failing in three of her five subjects, and her work in the other two was poor for a girl of her ability. The homeroom teacher sat down with Sara, and the two together tried to find the reason for the failing work. The girl herself seemed to discover the answer. She studied, but her efforts were unorganized and her time was not being used efficiently. It seemed she "just couldn't get anything done." They worked out a study schedule. Sara's father and mother talked with the teacher, and they agreed to cooperate in helping their daughter carry out the plan she had made. At the end of the next 6-week period, Sara was passing all her subjects and had achieved an A in one of them. Sara's parents and her teacher had been engaged in guidance.

Mary, although a member of the tenth-grade group and a girl of fine intelligence, was still indulging in temper tantrums. At the slightest provocation, she would yell and stamp her feet. Her teacher realized that a home situation full of disappointment and heartaches, accompanied by in-

dulgence on the part of those caring for a parentless child, plus a physical condition far from good, all combined to make Mary the problem child she was. At the noon hour the teacher helped Mary to see that giving way to her feelings in such a manner was having an undesirable effect on her and was creating a feeling of resentment among her fellow students. They discussed how the tantrums came as a result of frustration, and they decided that if she were to live happily a certain amount of control would be necessary. They worked out some ways in which Mary could become interested in worth-while activities. They discussed tantrums and health. The teacher found as many means as she could to help Mary to become less self-centered. The teacher was engaged in guidance.

A group of girls came to the recreation leader on the playground. They were a motley crowd, a mixture of a number of races and nationalities. Approaching the leader, they said, "Did you ever lose your temper when you were a girl?" After the teacher had assured the girls that such had been the case and that even now self-control could hardly be listed as an unfailing virtue, they asked if she could help them to learn to control their tempers. "You see," they said, "we have been trying to have a club in our homes, and the meetings always break up because we get mad." They found a place to sit down, tried to analyze what was happening, and agreed on a few concrete methods they would use in trying to solve their problem. Angelina, who was president of the club, admitted that she had probably been largely responsible for the trouble. The girls helped her to work out a plan for self-discipline. A few weeks later the leader was invited to visit a club meeting in the home of one of the girls. The recreation leader had been engaged in guidance.

Dick was a very bright boy with a physical handicap which resulted in a speech defect. By much patient endeavor

on his own part and on the part of his parents, Dick was able to make a good adjustment in school. The boy had a flair for dramatics and public speaking and an intense desire to help others. He thought he would like to enter the ministry. The school helped Dick to explore the field of his interest, arranged for an interview with an understanding and successful minister, helped him to decide what abilities were necessary if one were to be successful in this area, and assisted him in evaluating his own qualifications in the light of his findings. The school was engaged in guidance.

A child said to his mother, "Why is it that people do not like me as well as they like John?" (John was his younger brother.) The boy and the mother talked about qualities that people look for in others. They decided that the person who is well liked is friendly, cooperative, thoughtful, and dependable. The child felt that one of his failures was in not being thoughtful of others. They tried to discover when it is important for a child to be thoughtful and worked out a list of situations in which he would try to remember—when he could share his toys, when the mother needed a helper, when younger children were in trouble, when the others wanted to play something he would rather not play—and then they mapped out a program whereby the child could begin self-improvement. The mother was engaged in guidance.

The reader will say, "That is simple and very old." The statement is true, for as long as there have been parents and teachers and other interested adults there has been guidance. For guidance is nothing strange and new. It is that effort which all adults have made to help children find the greatest happiness and usefulness in life. Thoughtful adults wish for children the fulfillment of their possibilities and, because they do, they try to help them to achieve this end.

Guidance, however, has not always been based on the

thesis that the whole child comes to school, to the church, or even into the home. For too long a time society has tried to fit children into one mold. Teachers have said that *all* children should know certain things and behave in certain ways. Parents as well as teachers have set a single standard by which they judge all children.

The story is told of the bandit Procrustes who had a bed on which he measured his victims. It was his plan that every victim should be made to fit the bed exactly. Therefore, if the unhappy creature were shorter than the bed, large weights were attached to his legs until he was stretched to the proper size. If, on the other hand, he were too long for the bed, his legs were cut off. Many who have had the training of childhood and youth in their care have been guilty of very much the same atrocity. They have expected children, regardless of their native equipment and in spite of the environment in which they have lived their lives, to achieve the same development.

In recent years, however, educators have become aware of individual differences. At first they were inclined to believe that these differences were in intelligence only. Then came the mental hygiene movement with its emphasis on the individual's ability to face the exigencies of life. It was discovered that there were, of course, differences in native ability to learn formal subjects but that there were also differences in the way people react to environment, in the way they take their places in a group, in their attitudes toward life, in their emotional make-up, and in physical stamina. It was discovered also that all these had a great deal to do with the type of individual a person became. It was discovered that there was a great difference in the things that people were able to do successfully. Many parents awoke with a shock to the fact that even though Johnny could read well he might not be presidential timber.

Education, then, could no longer be thought of in terms of how much history, algebra, and science pupils could learn in a given time, albeit too many schools still operate on such a principle. It came to be recognized that even if Jimmy could recite his history verbatim, that even if he could solve the most difficult equation, and yet were not able to live happily and cooperatively with his fellows, the effectiveness of his knowledge was seriously limited. Educators saw that they must help the child to grow emotionally and socially as well as intellectually.

Education, they said, is growth—the growth of the whole personality. It is the result of the effort the child puts forth in his attempt to grow up. It has been said advisedly “the effort the *child* puts forth” rather than the effort the teacher puts forth. For we have learned that, for a child really to grow up, he must become self-directive. The educative process becomes the process by which he achieves his growth.

The work of the teacher, then, becomes largely one of motivation. He can help set the stage, he can suggest trailways of learning, but whether or not the child sets out on them must depend on his own volition. To help make him want to use all of himself in the effort to grow up and measure up to all his possibilities and to assist him as he pushes out into the untrod waters becomes the teacher's task. The effort to help each child achieve his fullest individual development is guidance. Efficient education involves guidance, and when we shall have reached more nearly our educational goals, it will be possible to forget the term “guidance,” for it will have been assimilated in the educational process.

If the teacher is to assume this responsibility, one thing is essential—he must know his pupils. For how can he guide individuals into the fulfillment of their possibilities unless he knows what these possibilities are, and unless he understands

which factors in the child's environment help or hinder his development? Morrison has said that teachers should spend half their time studying their pupils as individuals and the rest of their time doing what that study shows to be desirable and necessary.

Here in a nutshell we have the skeleton of a guidance program. There is discovery and activity. The teacher learns all he can about his pupils, and then he uses what he has learned as a basis for guiding their growth. A fine challenge this! Education for the child becomes an adventure—an adventure in which the stout of heart may climb to undreamed-of heights. It is the privilege of the teacher to accompany him on this adventure.

Adventure calls for an adventurous spirit. It calls for an understanding of the child, and it requires an acceptance of approach and emphasis different from those which were recognized a few years ago. It calls for the recognition of the fact that what the teacher is, his insight and understanding and sincerity of purpose, make a greater contribution to the growth of children than all the factual knowledge—important as that is—that he possesses. The teacher who accepts such a challenge will work longer hours, because his own enthusiasm will require it, and he will grow in spirit, in knowledge, and in understanding.

Such a philosophy is basic to the discussion of the various guidance services in the chapters that follow. Suggestions in regard to techniques are given as means of helping teachers to understand their pupils and to meet the discovered needs of boys and girls, and never as ends in themselves. Many of the techniques suggested are objective in nature, as measurements should be, but in using his findings the teacher will want to use all the insight and understanding he can command. For helping children achieve their fullest

development is an individual matter and cannot be effected en masse by means of mere objectivity.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Some teachers have felt that special help to individual pupils in the solution of their problems produces pampered, irresponsible children. How can the teacher avoid this pitfall? Why is such a result inconsistent with the philosophy advanced in this chapter?
2. List the "potentials of human personality" that will aid you in guiding your pupils to useful living.
3. Would acceptance of the philosophy indicated in this chapter make necessary any changes in procedures in your classroom? If so, what would they be?
4. Select one pupil who seems to you to need your help. List the experiences that seem to indicate his need of help. Be specific. State exactly what happened. Now state the problem as it seems to you. List the child's positive character traits—potentialities you can use in helping him to solve his difficulty. On the basis of these facts, prepare a plan of procedure.

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Adolescent Pupils Unravel Their Emotional Problems," *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 31, pp. 22-24, April, 1943. Five techniques useful to the counselor in helping the maladjusted adolescent are advocated. The writer does more than that, for he indicates simply and clearly some of the major symptoms of emotional maladjustment. These should prove to be very helpful to the lay worker.

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UNIT 2

Meeting the Adjustment Needs of the Adolescent

If one is in a group of adults who are dealing with adolescent boys and girls, one is almost certain to hear such expressions as "Ben knows it all. You can't tell him anything." "Sue is so untiable these days. Nothing pleases her." "Mary is boy crazy. She doesn't seem to care what happens to her grades in school." "There's John. When he was younger, he was a good worker around the home but he can't be depended upon any more. He wants to be out doing other things."

From the child himself come such expressions as "If my mother doesn't want me why doesn't she get rid of me?" "Gee, I want to please my parents, but they don't understand." "Why should I stay in school? I'm 16 and I'll never need more education." "This school is just a place where I have to come to be educated. I do not feel a part of it."

These examples could be multiplied many times. What parent, teacher, or counselor has not experienced a sense of bewilderment and utter helplessness as he has tried to help

this baffling group of youth to understand themselves and the world about them and has tried to be patient and understanding as he helps the young person find his way?

To be sure, the war has had its effect on everyone, and war plus the usual problems of adolescence has taken a heavy toll in various forms of juvenile delinquency and general maladjustment. Frequent attention has been called to the fact that much of the so-called "juvenile delinquency" has its roots in the lack of understanding and guidance on the part of the adults who are responsible for the leadership and care of young people. To observe the behavior patterns of this restless age, to look beneath the symptoms and understand the causes underlying behavior, requires a great deal of patience and no little amount of understanding. It is the purpose of this unit to point out, through a presentation of some brief case histories, a few of the major adjustment problems of the adolescent boy and girl.

Ben, an affable lad of 15, was of good average intelligence as measured on a group intelligence test. He was the older of two children of cultured, well-educated parents. His teacher became interested in Ben because of his extreme politeness, even when he was reprimanded. He had a tendency to "fake" knowledge in his classes and to make excuses for work not done. He seemed unable to face situations frankly, but was polite and persistent in his effort to evade his problems.

His mother found him mischievous and rebellious at home. He was disobedient and often engaged in arguments with her. He was unable to get along well with his employer in an after-school job and soon lost the job. His parents located another for him, but they found Ben unwilling to take responsibility for it, although he volunteered to help another boy to do the same kind of work elsewhere. He complained of being treated unfairly by both employers and teachers.

What had happened to Ben? In the first place, Ben was emerging from a very protected life at home. Until he entered high school, his mother had assisted him with homework, and his marks had been good. In high school, he was on his own, and his grades suffered. He had not learned how to study, and the pressure of high school assignments left him feeling bewildered and hopeless. But he could not disappoint his mother, either.

At home, high grades were important, and the fact that Ben's grades were lower than formerly made for a growing sense of insecurity in his family relationships. His younger sister, who had for a long time been the person around whom the life of the family had been integrated, was now in school receiving her mother's aid and making high grades, for which she was amply rewarded. Her rewards often exceeded Ben's allowance, which was already lower than the allowances of his classmates. Disappointment in Ben's lack of success in school was evidenced in many unconscious attitudes of the mother toward the boy.

Likewise, life on the job was too difficult without his mother's help and protection. His sense of failure persisted on the job as well as at home and in school. On the one hand were his restlessness of spirit and his desire to grow up and to venture forth on his own, and on the other hand was his seeming inability to carry the new responsibilities. Ben's politeness, the teacher found, was a way of covering his embarrassment and his feeling of insecurity. At home this same feeling expressed itself in irritability and disobedience. To let go of childhood and to risk manhood was no small task. To permit Ben to grow into manhood with just enough help was not easy for the mother. For Ben's mother wanted her son to be successful. She wanted to be proud of his achievement, but she lacked the faith, so needed by the parents of adolescents, that, a good foundation having been

laid in the earlier years, a child allowed sufficient freedom to experiment with the task of becoming an adult will emerge a man.

The school and the home worked together to help Ben take his difficulties in his stride. The parents faced frankly the boy's real ability and consented to a change in school roster that made achievement in school possible. They tried to avoid unfavorable comparisons and made a real effort to have all the family recognize Ben's successes. It was not so easy as the printed page makes it seem. It took a great deal of understanding, patience, and work on the part of Ben's parents and teachers, and a great deal of courage on Ben's part, but he won and went out to face adulthood with straightforward honesty and courage.

Ben's experience is that of many young people. Reared in homes of culture, protection, and helpfulness, they must face a world quite different from the one in which they lived their early years. Conscientious parents, too eager to help their children, have neglected to train them to take responsibility. The school, too, in its eagerness to have good order and to impart formal knowledge, has failed to educate for cooperative but creative thinking, planning, and activity.

They are growing up, these adolescents. The group mores which they long to adopt demand a greater independence and freedom than they have known before. How to obtain and use this new independence is a problem of major importance. How to fit the ideals that have been part of the small world of home into the broader relationships of the everyday world outside the home presents a problem of large dimensions to the adolescent.

Some of these difficulties are illustrated in the case of Sammy. Courtesy, a keen sense of humor, an overwhelming desire for friends, loneliness, and a violent temper were his leading attributes. He was the son of a thrifty foreign-

born family which had distinguished itself for its loyalty and patriotism in the American town which became their home.

Sammy was the youngest of three boys. His older brothers had been obedient lads and had kept faithfully the traditions of their parents. But Sammy was different. He didn't like the fact that a foreign language was spoken in his home. He didn't enjoy meeting his mother on the street in the fashion of her native land. He wanted to be a "regular American fellow." Being the youngest member of the family, he had been pampered, and now he became a real problem to his parents. His aversion to their ideas was demonstrated by frequent loss of temper at home, fights with his contemporaries at school, and involvement in unfortunate episodes in the community. This left him with few friends of the right kind. He was not passing in his work in school and that added further to his feeling of being "left out."

The boy became more and more involved until his score on the Stogdill Behavior Cards registered in the seventy-fifth percentile and tests indicated that his difficulties were emotional. Sammy was not an incorrigible. He was a good healthy American boy who found himself in emotional conflict, in which neither the home nor the school seemed capable of helping him. With a change of environment the boy was helped to gain perspective, to accept his home situation without embarrassment, and to find his rightful place among his contemporaries.

Jim, unlike the boys mentioned above, had little ability to learn school subjects. However, tests revealed that he had a high practical intelligence. With a low rating on a group test designed to measure ability to learn school subjects, he was failing most of his schoolwork. Repeated failure at school, the fact that he had been "kept back" so that he no longer associated with people his own age in school, in addition to a home situation in which he was re-

sponsible to several adults, all with different ideas, made Jim careless, obstinate, and unapproachable. Frequently he was accused of immoral conduct. The counselor discovered that basically Jim was a cooperative boy, but failure and insecurity had taken their toll to such an extent that the school was unsuccessful in helping him make the proper adjustments.

In Jim's case the school failed because it endeavored to solve the problem by treating the symptoms rather than the disease. Without a curriculum in which the boy could succeed, with few teachers who tried to understand and help him make what contribution he could to the life of the school, Jim was finally turned out of school to make his own way.

Madeline's mother had gone to see a social worker about her daughter. The girl was unhappy in school and contended that the school would not allow her to take the courses she wanted. She was enrolled in the commercial course but, since she wanted to be a missionary, felt that she should be taking academic work. When she contacted the school, the social worker found that Madeline had chosen her own course and that she had the privilege of changing it if she so desired.

The counselor talked with Madeline about her change in interests and found that some of Madeline's relatives whom she admired greatly were engaged in missionary work. Knowing that young people sometimes accept the vocational interests of those whom they admire, she suggested that Madeline take a vocational interest inventory before deciding definitely about her course. The girl did this only to find that she had practically no score in the area of social service, while she had a very high score in the commercial area. Her attention was drawn to the need for commercial people in church offices and mission boards, and after some experi-

ence in the field during summer vacation Madeline found that her first choice had been a wise one.

Discovery of vocational interest is only one of a great many problems in this area with which the adolescent is confronted. To be able to face frankly limitations as well as abilities in the choice of a vocation; to approach the world of work with a desire to make a worth-while contribution to the lives of men; to acquire a sense of values, an appreciation of thrift in these days when money is being spent too lavishly; to be intelligent about changing economic conditions and how they affect their living, to look ahead and plan for the future unafraid amidst the pessimism of this atomic age—all present a challenge to young persons about to enter the world of work, and to the adults who would counsel with them.

The teachers were complaining about Ella's behavior. She had changed during the summer. The year before she had been one of the most dependable girls in her grade and now she had become the problem child. Her cooperative spirit had given way to annoying behavior; her pleasant, kindly manner had been replaced by a sarcastic attitude. Her schoolwork began to suffer, and the outstanding achievement of the previous year gave way to careless, inefficient work.

It was not until one of her teachers noticed that Ella had different companions that the real reason for the change in the child was discovered. She had been a member of a social group of girls with acceptable home backgrounds. During the summer something had happened that had caused them to reject Ella. With the opening of school she had been unable to regain her place among them, and her disappointment and resentment were expressing themselves in many relationships. With some careful group guidance, both the members of the group and Ella were helped to

broaden their outlook and the child was gradually restored to her place in the group.

Ella's longing to *belong* is characteristic of every person. The desire to be liked and accepted is probably strongest at this age when boys and girls are eager to broaden their world and feel secure in it. To help the adolescent feel at home in a social group is one of the challenges of the modern school and community. If space permitted, much could be said here of the significant contribution being made in this respect by community youth councils and similar community enterprises that provide wholesome recreation facilities for the teen-age group.

Not only are adolescent boys and girls growing up emotionally and socially. They are indeed growing physically. The bones elongate, the sex glands mature, and the child becomes an adult. Rapid bodily changes baffle the young person who is ignorant of their meaning. He feels ugly, awkward. He is apt to cover his embarrassment by overt acts of behavior, and unless he has wise parents and teachers who can help him understand himself, his adult life may be seriously affected.

The need for understanding and enlightenment during this period was shown in another case.

Dave was not prepared for the onset of puberty. He was a comely boy, the idol of every girl in his class. One day his English teacher asked the members of the class to write a theme on a hobby. They were to describe the hobby and tell what steps they used in developing it. When the teacher read the papers, she was somewhat astounded to find Dave's paper headed "On Being a Wolf." Her outline had been followed quite well, much to her chagrin. Dave was severely reprimanded, and the counselor was asked to see him. Dave had not really wanted to be smart. He had had no help in understanding and interpreting his early development and

the urges which accompany it. Once that help was given, his adjustment was satisfactory.

Usually girls mature earlier than boys. The ninth grader who swoons at the mention of a football hero of the senior class may do so chiefly because the boys in her own grade are not so much interested in girls as she might like them to be. One homeroom teacher was waited upon by a group of ninth-grade girls who asked her what they could do to get certain boys of their class to invite them to a school party. The school has a fine opportunity here. By carefully planned school parties and dances both boys and girls can be helped to feel at home in the presence of the opposite sex, can learn to enjoy these social contacts, and can develop the social graces.

From the above illustrations it would seem that if these are truly representative adolescents, as the writers believe they are, the major problems of adolescence lie in these areas.

Home adjustment

Conflict between ideologies

Understanding and use of the new independence concurrent with this age

Understanding the sex urge and its relation to health and happiness

Planning one's life work

Learning to direct one's own path

Learning to be acceptable in and feel at home in a social group

It was noted at the beginning of this unit that much of the so-called "juvenile delinquency" existing today is the result of lack of interest, understanding, and guidance on the part of adults. The question might be raised here as to whether or not adults responsible for today's youth have tried to see life as a unit. Psychologists believe that for life to be happy it must be integrated about a dynamic purpose. Perhaps here lies the reason for the futility of much of the present-day

work with young people. Have they been guided in building a life plan? Is the purpose about which they have been encouraged to integrate their lives something so worth while and strong that they cannot be sidetracked by difficult and unhappy situations? Is juvenile delinquency the result of youth on a quest for something satisfying, they know not what? Has life been made so easy, so thoughtless, that it has no challenging stair, and no worth-while purpose has been found as the driving power in everyday living?

It would seem that unless the school, the home, the church, and the community increase their efforts in this respect, repetitions of the experiences of the last few years will occur and be multiplied manifold. In order to meet the emergency, counselors and teachers and parents and social workers and community workers must build a satisfying philosophy of their own. Whither youth? Which way for our children? Leaders of youth must answer these questions and, having answered them, find a way to achieve the goal. Life today offers no more difficult, no more rewarding task than this.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Across the top of a sheet of paper, write the developmental tasks of adolescence. Down the side of the same sheet of paper, write the names of the pupils in your homeroom group. Check in the proper column what seems to you to be the chief concern of each child at the present time.
2. Some adolescents are able to take these developmental tasks in their stride. Others need special help to take the hurdles. How about your group? Is there some way in which the work in the homeroom, perhaps a guidance period, can help these people?
3. Think carefully about your own school. Is it so organ-

ized that the preoccupation of adolescents with growth is recognized, or does the adolescent, in order to meet the demands of his physical and social growth, have to be in constant conflict with some of the requirements of the school? Lead a discussion of this problem at the staff meeting

- 4 Select one child in your group who seems to you to need special help. Plan an interview in which you would try to interpret to him the reason for his difficulty. Find if you can how the child feels, and then plan another interview in which you will help him to accept the way he feels and give him some suggestion as to how he can handle this feeling.

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ing and describing personality patterns of delinquent as distinguished from nondelinquent girls.

JONES, MARY COVINE. "Guiding the Adolescent," *Progressive Education*, Vol. 15, pp. 607-609, December, 1938. The three major tasks of adolescents, according to this article, are achieving independence, developing heterosexual interests, and building individual integrity. To help the child in each of these areas of growth, without being too restrictive or too lenient, is the course set for parents and teachers. Practical hints for adults, as well as examples of how some agencies have tried to meet the needs of adolescents, are contributed by the author.

LOYD, WILMA. "Adolescence—A Quest for Selfhood," *Progressive Education*, Vol. 16, pp. 242-245, April, 1939. Explaining the process of vacillation in the adolescent child as his attempt to find himself, the author suggests three questions that the adult must ask himself, if he is to understand what meaning certain types of behavior have for the child. What is he trying to do? What values has the behavior for him? What is his purpose and how does he try to achieve it? A stimulating discussion of these elements of behavior ends in a plea to adults to accept and believe in "the worth of the process of self-determination."

MORGENROTH, EDWIN C.: "Relationships between Teachers and Students in Secondary Schools," *Progressive Education*, Vol. 16, pp. 246-250, April, 1939. The author discusses ways in which the teacher can accept and deal with the ambivalence so typical of the adolescent child. The importance of dealing with children according to their level of maturity and of maintaining one's poise in trying behavior situations is presented convincingly.

UNIT 3

Guidance and Health

The football game between Charleston and Auburn was about over. There were 3 minutes left in the game. Charleston had the ball on the Auburn 30-yard line. Neither team had been able to score. Auburn held and clamed the ball on downs. Charleston's end, James Strong, intercepted a forward pass and shot off down the field, but he was heading for the wrong goal!

Charleston's sky-splitting cheer broke off abruptly as the spectators watched one of their own team racing to a touch-down for Auburn. James passed the 40-yard line and then the 50-yard line. A clear field lay ahead. Then broad-shouldered Al Deen, captain of the team, shot after him, and loped alongside for a few seconds, talking to him. James turned a startled face and surrendered the ball. Al whirled and threw it with swift precision. Charleston's halfback caught it and, seemingly before the fascinated spectators or the opposing team could sense what was happening, raced unchallenged down the field, this time toward the right goal. He reached the 10-yard line before the Auburn team fell upon him en

masse. One minute was left to play. Again the Charleston spectators caught their breath. Al passed the ball to the boy who 2 minutes before had made a near-tragic error, white-faced James Strong.

"I don't believe the combined lines of Harvard and Yale could have held against him after that vote of confidence," commented the coach following the game. "Soundest bit of psychology I ever saw. And Al gives all the credit for that touchdown to Strong. That boy's going places!"

"Do you know his dad—and his mother?" the school principal asked with seeming irrelevance. Then he continued with emphatic conviction, "That boy, I tell you, that boy, his brother, and two sisters have what all boys and girls in this country should have, the right sort of upbringing. First and foremost, they live in a happy, well-adjusted home."

"And, I suppose," the coach interposed, smiling, "Strong headed for the wrong goal because his mother's dead and his father's a traveling salesman?"

"Could be. It can account for a lot more than meets the eye. Now, those Deen youngsters, they not only get regular physical checkups. They've got in their home basement one of the most adequate home gymnasiums I have ever seen. Fixed it up themselves. And the kids from all over town flock there Tuesday and Thursday evenings when Mr. Deen is always on hand to referee or whatever. Under him those kids learn all the rules of good sportsmanship. No favoritism. No babying. The two boys carry their end of the load financially, too. Both of them have had paper routes since they were cub scouts, and Al works Saturday mornings at the plant. The girls have specified home duties, look after their own clothes, things like that."

"I've noticed," added the coach thoughtfully, "both boys always seem pleased when their dad shows up at the field,

and two or three times I've heard one of them say to another boy, 'Why don't we ask Dad? He'll know what to do,' or 'Let's talk to Dad. He'll help us out.'"

"That probably is the greatest, and the rarest, asset any child can have," stated the principal, "intelligent and *understanding* parents. Parents who not only look after the child's physical health but who also take time to learn what goes on in his mind and see that it, too, is kept healthy and happy."

Here is a picture of what a child with a fine inheritance and home surroundings may become. It is a pleasure for a teacher to work with young persons of this type. On the other hand, most children do not live in homes where such intelligent care is available. Lucy Boyer was such a child. One morning the principal of the junior high school which she attended was called to her homeroom, where she had fainted. She was quickly restored to consciousness, and the teacher and the nurse questioned her rather carefully. She had come to school with no breakfast and rarely had more than one adequate meal a day. There was no financial problem behind this. Lucy's mother received more than adequate alimony from Lucy's father, a lawyer. The child's questioners learned that the mother was trying to reduce and paid little attention to what her young daughter ate.

The school doctor to whom Lucy was sent for thorough checking (fortunately a wise man as well as a physician) turned in a grave report. The child must wear glasses until serious vitamin deficiencies were taken care of. Possibly this would correct the defective eyesight. Her teeth needed immediate attention. Her painful shyness, seeming backwardness, and reported unwillingness to take part in school activities would disappear when she was "adequately fed, attractively clothed, and adequately understood, and could be assumed that someone cared whether she lived or died. Lucy Boyer," the report continued, "is an acutely sensitive

child of unusual intelligence. I prescribe, in addition to the badly needed vitamins and further physical repairs noted on the attached sheet, some sympathetic understanding and all the love she can get."

Here was a case which could not be attended to overnight or settled with confidence. Lucy needed a homeroom teacher who was constantly on the alert to discover health needs. A close check on how she was getting along schoolastically would be helpful but entirely inadequate. The intelligent teacher knows that there are many sides to the child's personality, all of which should come under her careful and frequent scrutiny.

Mr. X, a big, ruddy, friendly man of 50, teaching health in a junior high school, began his class weekly by a personal inspection of the pupil's teeth. This familiarity on the part of some persons might have been resented, but not in his case. The pupils valued him as a real friend and were glad to discuss with him their health problems as well as any others that might be troubling them. Mr. X is only one of many health teachers of this general type. However, few homeroom or classroom teachers are so deeply concerned about the health of their pupils. Perhaps it is partly because their training has not "touched on these things." Perhaps it is partly because they have not thought of looking out for pupils' health as one of their functions. Here, perhaps, the principal has been remiss in not emphasizing the fact that the pupil brings his entire self to school and that it is the duty of the teacher to feel responsible for developing in him a well-rounded personality.

If the guidance program, then, is concerned with the *health* of the pupil, what is the easiest and most effective means by which a busy teacher may approach this, one of her many problems?

She must recognize the fact that physical and mental

health are intertwined, interdependent, and inseparable. The pupil who is physically below par will not face his problems with the dash and ebullience necessary for the greatest success, nor will one who harbors many doubts or fears, regrets over the past, or worries about the future be able to keep his bodily condition at top efficiency. It is scarcely necessary to remind most teachers that there have been times when worries about the past or future have noticeably cut down their own effectiveness.

Next, the teacher must cultivate the habit of looking through the encasing outward shell of the pupil and seeing what may not be observed by the ordinary person. She has to have that certain perspicacity or insight which distinguishes the artist from the common laborer. But even the artist teacher must have help. Some assistance is provided below.

However, not only the teacher's observations but those of the doctor and dentist and nurse, as well as observations by former teachers, should be on file and should be immediately available to the homeroom or core teacher or adviser. It is important that the teacher know the pupil's health history as well as his present condition.

Let it be emphasized that no teacher, unless a physician, should try to diagnose more than the simplest indisposition. This emphasizes the importance of keenness of observation to detect any difficulty and report it to the proper authorities.

But diagnosis, while important, must be followed by remedial work. In this connection, the teacher should emphasize the importance of hygienic living. She should see that backward pupils engage in athletics and other health-giving recreation, she should endeavor through means other than compulsion to see that they refrain from practices that are harmful—unhealthful sex practices, alcohol, tobacco, overexercise, etc.

Teacher's Observation Record

Pupil

Grade

SYMPTOMS OBSERVED		Date of Observation																		
EYES	Styes or crusted lids																			
	Inflamed eyes																			
	Crossed eyes																			
	Frequent headaches																			
	Squinting at book or blackboard																			
EARS	Discharge from ears																			
	Earaches																			
	Failure to hear questions																			
NOSE AND THROAT	Persistent mouth breathing																			
	Frequent sore throat																			
	Recurrent colds																			
GENERAL CONDITION AND APPEARANCE	Very thin																			
	Very fat																			
	Does not appear well																			
	Tires easily																			
	Poor muscle coordination																			
BEHAVIOR SYMPTOMS	Bad posture																			
	Emotional disturbances																			
	Speech defect																			
	Twitching movements																			
	Nervousness																			
	Undue restlessness																			
	Shyness																			
HEALTH HABITS	Nail biting																			
	Excessive use of lavatory																			
	Poor sleep habits																			
ABSENCES FOR ILLNESS	Poor food habits																			
	Write causes below																			
	Enter no. of days absent in "date" column																			
	Colds																			
	Stomach upset																			
	Others (specify)																			

Source *Health in Schools*, 20th Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators

Communicable Diseases

One area in which the teacher should be informed and vigilant is that of the communicable diseases of childhood. In this connection Rice¹ says:

Any trained public-health worker is familiar with the fact that the yearly distribution of such diseases as measles, German measles, whooping cough, chicken pox, mumps, influenza, and scarlet fever coincides with the public school calendar. By experience, the health officer of a municipality knows that the ringing of the school bell in September heralds the end of his summer of inaction in the way of imposing quarantines upon homes for the control of such communicable diseases as those just listed. With the greater crowding of pupils within the walls of the school building and with the advance of the winter season, there is a corresponding upward trend in his incidence chart of communicable diseases in the community. After reaching a crest late in the winter season, there is a rather abrupt drop in the disease curve as soon as the snow melts and the balmy days of spring invite youngsters out to play in the healing rays of the warm sunshine. And when the school bell is hushed once more in June for the summer vacation period, the disease incidence curve drops rather suddenly upon the base line of the chart and rests there languidly until September's school bell rings once more.

It is again emphasized that, although the teacher is not expected to treat these ailments, he should be alert to symptoms of the most common communicable diseases. Examination of the table shown below will reveal that 12 out of the 27 diseases listed here are transmitted through nose and throat secretions. This high incidence of such diseases emphasizes the importance of the teacher's being extremely alert to all symptoms related to the common cold. While immediate attention should be given to all colds, the im-

¹ John W. Rice, "Pupil Personnel Service and Physical Environment of the Child," Chap. 8, p. 159, in *Pupil Personnel Service* by Frank G. Davis *et al.*, International Textbook Company, Scranton, Pa., 1948.

portance of such action is magnified in view of the fact that other more dangerous diseases have similar symptoms. Therefore, children with cold symptoms should be promptly excluded from school until a physician's certificate advises their readmission with the note that the child is suffering from nothing more serious than the common cold.

While those diseases characterized by cold symptoms are by far the most frequently encountered, the teacher should have some acquaintance with symptoms of the other diseases, particularly those communicable through skin contact or gastrointestinal infection, as well as contagion borne by insects.

The teacher must see the whole picture of the pupil's school life, and this involves the selection of a proper curriculum and desirable adjustments within that curriculum. It involves counseling with pupils on all such adjustments. It means referring physically or mentally handicapped pupils to proper specialists in or out of the school system. Whenever possible, special classes, doctors, nurses, psychologists, and even psychiatrists should be available for the pupils needing such care. An important element in healthful living is involved in the activities program of the school. We have much to learn about living together as social beings. The pupil's adjustment to his teachers and his fellow pupils in class, on the playground, and in various school activities is an example of the remedial work in which the teacher has an opportunity to participate. Just becoming acquainted with *Robert's Rules of Order* may have a remedial influence, or at least a preventive one, in the emotional development of a pupil. The need for this work was shown in the recent poignant case of the high school junior who had apparently had little of the training mentioned here. Commencement came, and as president of the next year's senior class of 30 pupils he was expected to receive the mantle from the gradu-

TABLE 1 SUMMARY OF COMMUNICABLE-DISEASE CHARACTERISTICS*

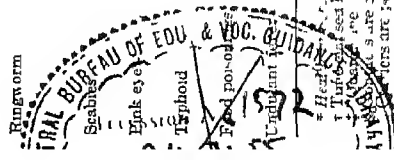
Disease	Incubation,† days	Usual mode of transmission	Period of greatest communicability	Immunization	General control measures	Usual length of quarantine or isolation‡
Colds	1-2	Nose and throat secretions	First three days	None	Avoid exposure	None, except self-imposed
Smallpox	9-12-15	Nose and throat secretions	From pre-eruptive stage until recovery	Vaccination	Quarantine cases and contacts§	14-21 days, contacts 14 days un- less successfully vaccinated
Diphtheria	2-7	Nose and throat secretions	While throat and nose cul- tures are positive	Toxoid	Quarantine cases and contacts§	Until 2 (or 3) negative cultures, same for contacts and carriers
Scarlet fever	2-3-7	Nose and throat secretions	As long as any abnormal discharge persists	Dick toxin	Quarantine cases and contacts§	Variable minimums from 21-35 days, but usually until abnormal discharges cease, contacts ex- cluded for 7 days
Measles	11-12-14	Nose and throat secretions	During pre-eruptive stage, declining after rash ap- pears	Convalescent serum or pla- cental extract	Isolate cases and con- tacts who have not had measles	Up to 14 days for cases, contacts excluded unless they have had it
Polomyelitis	10-14-18	Nose and throat secretions, also possible intestinal discharges	Preparalytic stage	None	Quarantine cases	Arbitrary, usually at least 2 weeks
Meningitis	Unknown	Nose and throat secretions	While meningococci persist in nose and throat	None	Quarantine cases	Until 2 postnasal cultures are negative, same for carriers,
Encephalitis	Uncertain	Uncertain, possibly insect borne	Unknown	None	Quarantine cases	No established practice
Whooping cough	4-10-17	Nose and throat secretions	Before the whoop develops	Vaccination in infancy	Isolate cases and con- tacts	Four weeks, if 2 negative cough plates are obtained
German measles	14-17-21	Nose and throat secretions	Pre-eruptive stage	None	Isolate cases	7-14 days, isolation
Mumps	15-20-21	Nose and throat secretions	Before symptoms appear and up to 6 weeks after	None	Isolate cases	Isolation of patient only
Chicken pox	14-17-21	Nose and throat secretions	Before eruption appear-	None	Isolate cases	Isolation of patient only
Tuberculosis	Months or years	Nose and throat secretions, milk, food	Whenever sputum contains tubercle bacilli	None	Isolate cases with pos- itive sputum, keep contacts under ob- servation	Usually not compulsory, unless gross negligence is shown or children are exposed

	14-40-365†	Wound infection	Spread by animal bites only	Pasteur vaccine	Confine and observe rabid or suspected animal, leash dogs	None for human patient, animal held for confirmation of diagnosis
Rabies	14-40-365†	Wound infection	Seldom communicated person to person	Toxoid antivenom	Prompt attention to wounds	None
Tetanus	6-15	Wound infection	Seldom communicated person to person	None	Prompt attention to wounds	None
Septic infections	Variable	Wound infection	Whenever open sores exist on skin or mucous membrane	None	Require treatment of all cases until non-contagious	Usually not compulsory, unless gross negligence is shown
Syphilis	14-21	Broken skin or intact mucous membrane	While gonococci exist on skin or mucous membrane	None	Require treatment of all cases until non-contagious	Usually not compulsory, unless gross negligence is shown
Gonorrhea	14-21	Broken skin or intact mucous membrane	Any time	None	Exclude from school unless under treatment with appropriate dressings	None
Barber's itch	3-7	Broken skin	Any time	None	Exclude from school unless under treatment with appropriate dressings	None
Impetigo	3-7	Broken skin	Any time	None	Exclude from school unless under treatment with appropriate dressings	None
Ringworm	3-7	Skin, unbroken	Any time	None	Exclude from school unless under treatment with appropriate dressings	None
Scabies	2-3	Skin, unbroken	Any time	None	Exclude until complete recovery	None
Itchy eyes	3-5	Eyes, via hands or towels	Any time	None	Exclude until complete recovery	None
Typhoid	7-9, 11-23	Water, milk or food contamination	As long as typhoid bacilli are discharged	Vaccination	Exclude until no longer a carrier	None, precautions taken in disposal of stools and urine
Food poisoning	1-11-2	Food contamination	Any time	None	Clean food practices	None
Undulant fever	1-11-2	Milk	Any time	None	Exclude until complete recovery	None

Revised 1912-203, Twentieth Yearbook, American Association of University Administrators, Washington, D.C., 1912

† These are the subjects of the "Twentieth Yearbook" of the American Association of University Administrators, Washington, D.C., 1912.

14-40-365† is the subject of the "Twentieth Yearbook" of the American Association of University Administrators, Washington, D.C., 1912.



ating president, who performed her part of the ceremony with ease and grace. But when the young man had been properly accoutered and tried to make his little speech, a few words came and the rest remained unspoken. He stood there for considerable time, but his speech was over and he sat down. And there sat the superintendent, the principal, and the speaker of the evening, none with sufficient presence of mind to get up, pass it off lightly, and state that he had been in a similar predicament on some past occasion. Instead, the poor, beaten youngster went to his seat and sneaked out as soon as he could, to live that horrible experience over again day after day, probably thinking that he was the first person who was ever so unfortunate. It is to be hoped that few teachers will in the future be as inept as were those three educational leaders who so obviously overlooked a golden opportunity.

The idea of sharing one's problems with others is at the base of the program of human relations recently introduced in the schools of Delaware under the leadership of Dr. H. Edmund Bullis and described in the book, *Human Relations in the Classroom*.² The purpose of the program is to help boys and girls to learn to live normally, and the purpose of the book is to help teachers in the solution of this important problem.

In an article dealing with this program, Whitman³ has this to say:

How does a human-relations class work?

It begins with a story the teacher reads from a prepared lesson plan. It is selected to illustrate the day's theme—Emotional Problems at Home, That Inferiority Feeling, How Emotions Affect Us Physically.

² H. Edmund Bullis *et al.*, *Human Relations in the Classroom*, The Delaware State Society for Mental Hygiene, Wilmington, Del., 1944

³ Howard Whitman, "Teach Our Children How to Live," *Woman's Home Companion*, Vol. 74, pp. 34–35, June, 1947.

After the story, the children analyze the emotional forces involved, isolate and discuss the conflicts and problems of the people, and evaluate their personalities. Then, as the cream of the lesson, they talk about themselves. Have they ever felt these emotions? What have they done about it? Have they ever faced a similar problem? How did they solve it? In free and open discussion the children have no hesitation about admitting the emotions they feel, however unpleasant. That is one of the great values of the classes. Each child gets a healthy sense of relief at discovering that he is not the only one who ever told a lie, or was afraid, or felt greedy.

In research carried out in this program, it is found that about 15 per cent of the pupils are socially unacceptable to their companions. They are thus easily discovered, and in some cases teachers are able to help them to improve their adjustment to the group.

While the human-relations classes as conducted in Delaware are no doubt far from perfect, the experiment is an interesting one, and the method is being tried out in many group guidance classes in various parts of the country.

What are some of the symptoms that a teacher ought to look for in her effort to understand the health of her pupils? No attempt is made to list these in the order of their importance or frequency of appearance.

First, the pupil who blames his difficulties on someone else (*projection*) deserves attention from teacher, counselor, principal, or parent. One of the things anyone who wants to be well adjusted must do is to learn to face the facts. Unless he can do this, he is not likely to succeed either in his job, since he is inclined to place the blame wrongly for his failures, or among his fellows, who are disposed to like only persons who stand on their own feet and carry their own loads.

The teacher who discovers a pupil with the habit of blaming his failures on others should somehow bring him to see the importance of facing reality. Perhaps a class similar to

that discussed in Dr. Bullis's book may lead him to face the facts of the situation. It is quite possible that at home he has been allowed to "get away with" the faking involved. This makes the teacher's task harder, since an unfortunate habit must be broken, and this may mean seeing the pupil run headlong into some difficult situations and struggle out of them either with or without the teacher's help. The necessity in cases of projection is that the individual must face reality and make the connection if he is to succeed.

Success and Failure

There are those who claim that a pupil should never be allowed to fail. This is mentioned in another unit, but will receive further attention here. Certainly a pupil who always fails is in a fair way to an unfortunate state of mind. But this is likely to be true of few pupils if teachers have any functional acquaintance with mental hygiene. The problem is to see that a pupil experiences a fair *balance* between success and failure. And the number of failures in the school life of a pupil who does his best should not be large. In fact, if the reporting system recommended in this book is in operation, a pupil who does his best in his subjects will have no failures there. His reports will be satisfactory, which means that he is living up to his capacities. However, there are competitive situations in games and many other school situations in which his best will not get him a place on the first team. There will, however, be other games or activities in which he can succeed. In one junior high school 80 per cent of the pupils enrolled were *honored* on "Recognition Day" because they had done at least one thing well.

This brings up the much-discussed problem of honors at high school or even junior high school graduation. Fortunately this is less common in the case of the latter. Perhaps there is more justification for these honors in college. That

is a moot question. But the principles of mental hygiene and of common justice can hardly be squared with the practice of selecting a valedictorian, salutatorian, and several winners of prizes, most of which are captured by a tiny group including and clustered around the two top scholars. There are surely other bases of recognition than the old one of ability to make high scholastic grades. A more democratic method of selecting commencement speakers is that of election by class members.

But if honors are to be bestowed, let us spread them around. Every school still holding to the antiquated practices should appoint a committee early in the fall for a year-long study of the situation, with the good of the entire school and all its pupils in mind. One recalls Bela Zaboly, the artist, Charles Stime, the poet; James Tucker, artistic woodworker, and Robert Stime, baseball pitcher. On the other side were Sarah Huntley, sewer extraordinary, Julia Wohl, milliner, Sadie Lucci, wax-bead expert; and Carrie Hawthorne, pianist. Then add to these the boys and girls who have done outstanding work in scouting or other activities demanding initiative and the will to win and serve. Who knows that their contributions are less important than those of the top scholars? There are many areas which might be explored, but perhaps the above will serve to illustrate the principle.

Self-direction

Another pupil the teacher should be looking for is the one who shows significant lack of self-direction, of ability to decide what to do and then do it. There will be others who are inclined to be too definite and who try to "boss" their schoolmates. The latter may well be told that they are not popular because of this tendency, but more time should be spent on the timid, undecided child. He is likely to be made miser-

able by being imposed on by the dominant individuals about him. Mylon Thomas, son of a towering former athlete, was being put upon by his aggressive playmates who would send him home crying. His father finally warned him if it ever happened again he would "give him something to cry about." The occasion came when he had to fight or meet a stern father for something worse. He chose the former, and although he went weeping into combat, he went with desperation and routed his assailant completely. Not all cases of timidity and indecision can or should be handled so, but in every case it must be emphasized that decision and some kind of fight are essential.

To be sure, the teacher who is trying to build up will power and confidence in a pupil should see that he has a "fair balance between success and failure" with a heavy weighting on the success side at the beginning, at least.

Need for Affection and Belonging

Prescott⁴ lists as social needs of children need for affection, need for belonging, and need for likeness to others. The first two may be considered together and the third is closely related. In observing pupils for signs of unhealthful conditions, the teacher should learn whether they seem to have their share of that affection to which every child has a right. How often has one noticed the fact that children like to play at the homes of certain friends but not at their own homes or at those of other playmates. Investigation would probably bring out the fact that the mother in a certain home is really a mother to her own children and to all their friends. Or the father in another likes boys and serves as a magnet to bring his own boys and all the neighborhood

⁴ Daniel A. Prescott, *Emotion and the Educative Process*, a report of the Committee on the Relation of Emotion to the Educative Process, pp. 110-138, American Council on Education, Washington, D.C., 1938

gang to his backyard or shop or gymnasium. They have found something more than their friendship for the resident boy or girl. It is a man or woman who loves children, and the latter come to find something they do not discover elsewhere. The polished apple in the case of many children is not an attempt to get better grades but to induce someone to love them.

Again, pupils want to *belong*. They don't want to be left out of a group. Anyone who has attended a college where fraternity and sorority rushing is an annual or semiannual affair has ample evidence of this. The article on this subject by Mrs. Glenn Frank, the widow of the late president of the University of Wisconsin, brought terrific repercussions and her dismissal from her national sorority, but she stuck to her thesis, and received wide support even from many of her own sorority members. Not all the sad situations are on the feminine side of the fence. A strong case can be built up against men's fraternities as well as against women's organizations, both of which have many arguments in favor of their continuance. In fact, both are strong in America because of people's desire to *belong*. The teacher who wishes to serve in the satisfaction of this important desire must know her pupils from many angles. Merely knowing them as numbers is entirely inadequate.

Finally, the desire to be like others, while closely related to the other needs of the child, deserves a modicum of additional attention. Many a teacher has known pupils of outstanding ability who did only average work because they wanted to be like most of the other pupils. The boy who, after slamming a door, was warned by the maid not to do it replied that his father slammed the door and he guessed he could slam it, too. Watch the first pair of cowboy overalls come into a junior or senior high school and ask the clothing merchant how long his stock lasted. It is not necessary to

mention ladies' hats or silk stockings or the "new look." They are all additional evidence that a fundamental human social need is likeness to others. The guidance-minded teacher will always be looking for opportunities to help pupils to satisfy this need.

Meeting Conflicts

Too many teachers are inclined to consider that some act or attitude on the part of a pupil really represents the character or personality of that individual. A thorough understanding of the developing child will remind them that what seem to them definite traits or characteristics which must be treated as either desirable or undesirable are representative of the developing personality and must be thought of as merely steps toward the development of a personality which is well or poorly adjusted. Someone has said, "We have not character; we are only candidates for character." So we may say with equal truth we have not adjustment; we are only candidates for an integrated personality. Or, we never *have* education, we are only candidates for education. Such an attitude on the part of teachers will help them to see ill-adjusted pupils as merely being in the process of growth and will warn them to have patience and never to despair.

As children grow up they run into many taboos, controls, and restrictions which interfere radically with what they would wish. In many of these conflicts the child does with great reluctance the thing that society recommends. Many a youngster has crept "like a snail, unwillingly to school" because he feared the results of truancy more than he disliked the confinement of school attendance.

Teachers should realize that children who have not progressed far enough on the road to adjustment usually try to compensate for their lack by meeting their conflicts by either withdrawing or attacking behavior. The pupil who retreats and withdraws in the face of conflict is the one who is least

likely to attract attention of the teacher or other pupil. Therefore, his case is less likely to have attention than is that of the one who changes into the affray and frequently gets into trouble by insubordination. Wickman⁵ in a rather intensive study of children's behavior and teachers' attitudes arrived at the conclusion that the withdrawing pupil was overlooked by the teacher since he caused the teacher no discomfort, while the aggressive, rebellious pupil disturbed the teacher and received an undue amount of attention. Thus those activities related to withdrawal were less often considered undesirable than were those related to boisterous conduct. Mental hygienists, on the other hand, rated the seriousness of activities in the reverse order.

Some possible indications of social maladjustment of these two types are given below:⁶

Withdrawing Behavior

Shyness, timidity, cowardliness
 Unsocialness, solitariness, inability to make friends
 Dreaminess
 Extreme docility, overdependence on adults or on routine
 Sensitiveness to criticism, feelings easily hurt
 Fearfulness, suspiciousness
 Pedantry, overdiligence in school work
 Inability to carry responsibility

Attacking Behavior

Temper outbursts
 Aggressiveness, defiant attitude, resistance to authority, disobedience
 Quarrelsomeness, fighting, boasting
 Rejection of school routine, wanting always to be the leader in school activities or to pursue own methods of work
 Contentiousness, poor sportsmanship
 Overactivity
 Delinquency, truancy

⁵ E. K. Wickman, *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes*, The Commonwealth Fund, New York, 1928.

⁶ "Children's Behavior Problems," *Health Bulletin for Teachers*, Vol. 19, No. 5, May, 1948, Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, New York.

The Teacher's Health

Teaching is a "tough" job. Only those should engage in it who are in robust health both physically and mentally. And the teacher who is in poor health either physically or mentally is not likely to be in first-rate shape in the other. Some two decades ago it was reported that in a large metropolitan high school a greater percentage of teachers than of pupils was emotionally unstable. No statistics are available today, but it is probable that every teacher who is nervous and snappy and antagonistic toward children should look at herself frankly while holding before her a picture of a well-integrated person and see what she can find. Maybe some of those problem children are not problems at all but are working with problem teachers. Some teachers are carrying too little responsibility for leadership in community affairs. On the other hand, undoubtedly some give too much time and energy to affairs outside of school. While some teachers have the energy and enthusiasm for intensive Sunday school activity, it is quite probable that more should not take an active leadership part. A program which provides for a considerable amount of diverting recreation during any ordinary school week is recommended for the teacher who wishes to be at her best. Some sort of outdoor exercise when the weather is favorable and an indoor program, such as bowling or table tennis, when the weather is bad will provide most teachers with clearer brains and fewer discipline problems.

One more suggestion for the teacher refers to the need for her to keep comfortably within her capacities. Accepting jobs, in school or in the community, which worry her or require too much additional preparation, will cut down her vitality and consequently her efficiency, with all the attendant evils. In this connection it is scarcely necessary to remind the teacher that thorough preparation in and knowledge of her subject are important health assets. A periodic health checkup is, of course, mandatory.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Make a list of the health guidance activities you are expected to engage in in your school.
2. Read the articles discussed in the annotated bibliography at the end of this chapter. List the health guidance activities you believe you can engage in in connection with the teaching of your subject.
3. Read *Human Relations in the Classroom* by Bullis and O'Malley. Could this technique be used successfully in your classroom? Why, or why not?
4. Read Chap 7 in *Pupil Personnel Service* by Davis *et al.* Then prepare a list of observations you believe you should make of each child
5. Examine the health manual of your home state.
 - a. What help does it give you in health guidance?
 - b. What suggestions can you give for its improvement?
6. Discuss with your homeroom group the organization of a board of health for the group. If the group decides to create such a board, see that a committee is appointed to draw up rules and regulations to govern the board's activities.
7. Prepare a plan for evaluating your health guidance.

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- BRICKMAN, WILLIAM W.: "Child Psychology," *School and Society*, Vol. 66, pp. 328-333, October, 1947. The author gives paragraph briefs of some two dozen books on child psychology and warns parents and teachers not to "swallow doctrines and procedures" before evaluating and checking. A list of books reviewed, with number of pages and cost, is appended

DONLON, T. W.: "Vitalizing the Junior High Health Program," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, Vol. 20, pp. 153-157, March, 1945. Emerson Junior High School received pupils from almost every possible level of economic capacity. It is in a rapidly growing community with an unusually active Parent-Teacher Association interested in the children's health. Pupils are kept health-conscious. The "health implications" of the various school subjects are constantly brought out; in mathematics, for instance, the computations are made for calories of individual diets, graphs of height and weight, graphs giving focal lengths of eyesight, graphs showing rates of fatigue, etc. Visual education is used to a great extent. The school physician takes an active part, and frequent health checks are made. Health data are sent to the homeroom teacher for use in guidance work. A paper-bound booklet *Calling All Parents* consists of materials compiled by the P.T.A. health committee. It contains a number of illustrations. Sex education has been introduced. Boys' and girls' health committees function. The attendance officer contacts most frequently pupils in poor health.

HALLIDAY, JAMES L.: *Psychosocial Medicine: A Study of the Sick Society*, W. W. Norton & Company, New York, 1948. Dr. Halliday, a member of Scotland's Department of Health and a psychiatrist, declares that not only is the child increasingly insecure in today's society but so is the adult. The causes, the breakdown of the father-dominated family, the decline of religion, the changes in child rearing, increased city dwelling, the increased use of machinery, and the "insecurity of the collapsing platform" (people not knowing where they stand in society or how long they can keep their footing). The cure, to deal with the mental as well as the physical

aspects of nature. Dr. Halliday declares that although the symptoms are the patients', the causes may well be society's, and he suggests "group practice" of doctors, social workers, and nurses.

JOHNSON, LILLIAN J.. "A Girl Named Ann," *Parents' Magazine*, Vol. 22, p. 35, November, 1947. A detailed case study of a maladjusted 15-year-old girl who was transformed with the aid of the Ryther Child Center in Seattle.

LAUTERBACH, SOPHIA. "Help Him Be a Right Guy," *Parents' Magazine*, Vol. 23, p. 35, March, 1948. An interesting case study which shows that a small child cannot bear constant restriction and disapproval and that, like "The Brave Little Tailor," every child "needs his own successes to help his personality grow."

MONES, L. "Health Instruction: Tonic for Our Sickest Subject," *Clearing House*, Vol. 22, pp. 455-458, April, 1948. Health must become a goal, a plan, and a program in our schools. The emphasis must be on the execution of the program rather than on the program itself. Health instruction should involve "things to be done, corrections to be made, conditions to be established, and standards to be met." The program must be tied up with the home and with many community institutions. The health program must be a vital and constant concern of not only health teachers but of every member of the school staff.

SEELEY, EVELYN. "No Child Need Be Lost," *Survey Graphic*, Vol. 36, pp. 579-583, November, 1947. The author tells of the 4-year-old mental hygiene project in New York City, the Harlem project (in an elementary and two junior high schools), the Council Child Development Center, and residential schools. She reports on H. Edmund Bullis' interesting proposal for "mass preven-

tive" programs through human-relations courses in the elementary schools, for which a control study is now in process, and the "spreading and deepening knowledge of children's emotional needs."

"The Country Over: Mental Health," *Survey*, Vol. 83, pp. 351-352, December, 1947. An interesting, fairly detailed report of the annual meeting (November, 1947) of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, Inc. It discusses briefly the importance of adequate publicity; the beginning made by states in establishing clinics for preventive mental health services, which were made possible by the National Health Act of 1946, the grants-in-aid to states for preventive services, and the appropriation to the U. S. Public Health Service for training of personnel and research; the comparative cost of prevention and cure; the need in terms of people, and the cooperation of church and psychiatrist.

TROW, WILLIAM CLARK: "Escape and Mental Health," *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin*, Vol. 19, pp. 81-84, March, 1948. The author treats truancy and lying as children's methods of escaping from things which to them are almost intolerable. The very fact that school attendance is compulsory does not add to its attractiveness. Perhaps if a pupil had as much freedom to escape as has the principal when he goes to the Rotary Club or the superintendent when he takes a week off to attend a national convention, fewer pupils would take time off illicitly. An excellent argument for the teacher's developing perspicacity with regard to what's "cooking" in the mind of the pupil.

UNIT 4

The Homeroom

Dick came from a small rural school, where he had the reputation of being a "very good boy," into a high school a few miles from his home. While this school was only of moderate size as high schools go, it was nevertheless a great deal larger than the one in which Dick had grown up. The boy was taller than most ninth graders, and he had a facial marking of which he was quite conscious.

During the first weeks that he was in the homeroom, he yelled, stamped, and indulged in other overt behavior. He was most uncooperative in everything the group undertook to do. The teacher tried without success many methods to help him fit into the new situation. The climax came when the first report cards were issued 6 weeks after the opening of the term. Dick's grades were lower than they had ever been. According to his mother he had been a very good student until he came to this school.

The teacher and the mother discussed the reasons for Dick's failure. The teacher had noticed that Dick was making considerable effort to attract the attention of the girls in the room. This proved to be the means of challeng-

ing the boy. The teacher assured him that his interest was an entirely normal one and suggested that perhaps different methods would bring him better results. Perhaps he might be more successful if, instead of slapping the guls across the back at every opportunity, he were to open the doors for them, or he were to step back and allow all the guls to leave the room first instead of rushing ahead of them. He decided it would be worth the try.

Gradually Dick regained his old-time thoughtfulness not only in his relationships with guls but also in his relationships with other members of the homeroom group. He accepted a responsibility in the homeroom, and his grades reached a level compatible with his ability. Conferences between him and the homeroom teacher continued, although they became less frequent as the weeks went by. Dick relaxed and showed a very fine sense of humor, which had not been evident at the beginning of the year. He began to enjoy all his associations in the homeroom, and at the end of the year the teacher was able to commend him on the excellent adjustment he had made.

Dick was not a problem child. He was a good, normal boy who found himself in a bewildering situation, and his overt behavior was his effort to adjust himself to it. His story is typical of homeroom stories, for while any given homeroom has few if any problem children in it, it has children all of whom have problems. There are adjustments which need to be made, rough places in school life which need to be made smooth, experiences which need to be shared, and just ordinary, everyday things which need to be understood. It is to such a function that the school has rightly assigned the homeroom. In many schools the homeroom has become the center of guidance activities. That is as it should be, for the effective homeroom is in truth a "home away from home." It is the family unit within the

life of the school just as the home is the family unit within the life of the community

It is in the homeroom that students learn to know each other best. Here the teacher has a more intimate relationship with pupils than in any other part of the school setup. Here they learn to live together informally, to play together, and to face together some of life's perplexities. Here is a setting conducive to friendliness, frankness, exploration, decision, and experimentation. Here is the most superb opportunity which the school affords for participation in democratic processes.

It is the homeroom teacher who determines whether or not the homeroom is to be such a haven as has been described. This, simply enough, involves delight in being with youngsters—enjoying the interesting experiences they have in and out of school, enjoying with them the excitement and thrill of boy meets girl, sharing the anxiety they feel when that book report is due, understanding the problems they face in “bringing up father”; helping in those few minutes after school with that tough equation, only to find that she has forgotten algebra and has to start where the pupils are, and then the fun of then experiencing together the steps in the learning process. Here is the thrill of being alive and allowing the youth of the students to stimulate one into joyous living with them.

Needless to say, such joy springs from an understanding of and sympathy with the child in his daily round of living. It presupposes recognition of each child's interests and needs. It includes the ability to summon his confidence. Perhaps it is fortunate that none of these qualities falls “as the gentle rain from heaven” whether the teacher wills or not. They come as a result of painstaking but interesting hard work.

Miss Reed was given a real assignment when Bill, the new

pupil, was placed in her homeroom. He had not been in any school for a long time, when, on that fatal day, the law had tapped him on the shoulder and had said he must go to school. He was 15 and, as he entered Miss Reed's room, he stated frankly that he would be there for just a few months until he would be 16 and could get a job. Miss Reed calmly replied that that would be all right with her, that she hoped he would like the new school, and that she was willing to help him in any way she could.

It was not easy for Bill to adjust to school life, and it was not easy for Miss Reed to be patient during the painful process. The boy stayed away from school and was resentful when he was asked to explain his absence. The homeroom teacher realized that success in school was difficult for this boy, because he had forgotten how to study. She gave him some extra help, and enlisted some of his classroom teachers in the project. Gradually his attendance improved, even if he didn't arrive on time.

Miss Reed attacked this problem next. By this time she had won Bill's confidence, and he had shared with her the unhappy circumstances of his life at home. For the first time Bill was beginning to want something for himself, and he planned with a friend a way to get to school on time.

His work in the classroom began to improve but not without difficulties. He did not get along well with one of his teachers, and on a number of occasions left school for that period. Again Miss Reed came to his assistance. In conferences with the classroom teacher she was able to discover adjustments Bill needed to make and at the same time to interpret to the teacher the reasons for many of his behavior patterns.

The careless boy of several months before had become a pupil in the school and in his new role took pride in his appearance. While he did not overwork, his grades were

passing, and school came to have meaning for him. Near the end of the term, Bill went to see Miss Reed. School was not such a bad place after all, and he believed that he would like to stay.

He said he was tired of standing on the street corners at night. Could Miss Reed make a suggestion? A free scholarship to the Y.M.C.A. resulted, and Bill substituted worthwhile recreational activities for the emptiness of the leisure time that was his.

Fortunately, not all the members of Miss Reed's homeroom group needed as much special help as Bill did. But all of them had problems of one kind or other, and Miss Reed helped each one according to his need. Her method was to start where the children were and gradually guide them into a solution of their own problems.

Miss Reed's homeroom group was a typical one and posed problems similar to those in any given homeroom. Just as she had to learn to know Bill and her other pupils, so every homeroom teacher must try in every way possible to know her pupils.

She will want to know something of the child's home and his relationships there, as well as what progress he has made in school up to this time. His interests will help her not only in establishing rapport with him but in helping him as he plans for his future. In order to counsel the pupil effectively, she must know whether he is measuring up to his capacity; thus it will be important for her to know what his learning ability is.

Many a child is at a disadvantage at school because he has physical handicaps. The teacher will want to know about these. The cardiac should not be allowed to engage in strenuous physical activity. The nervous child should not be given tasks that will overtax his energy. The child who has defective sight should be seated near the front of the

room to avoid eyestrain. The child with auditory difficulties should be seated near the teacher and in such a position that he can see her lips. These and other handicaps which children may have often make for more serious ones if the teacher has not recognized them and dealt with them accordingly.

The homeroom teacher should be aware of social and emotional adjustments that need to be made. Many times the teacher is more aware of the aggressive child than of the pupil who is "moody" in school because of some social or emotional maladjustment. Because these phases of the adolescent's life are so important in the building of a well-integrated personality, the teacher who would do personnel work must take cognizance of them.

When the homeroom teacher has discovered the needs of her pupils, she will do well to plan homeroom activities that will help meet these needs. It has been suggested that the homeroom is the family unit within the life of the school, just as the home is the family unit in the life of the community. This necessitates the building of an *esprit de corps*. The interests and needs of the group, plus the resources available, will determine how this is to be done.

One group felt that they needed a reading corner. Some of them arrived early on the school bus, and since the library was not open at that hour, it was decided to provide facilities in the homeroom. The boys found two discarded chairs in the furnace room. With the help of the school custodian, they repaired and painted them. With money contributed by the group, the girls bought material and recovered the chair cushions. Another group of boys made a bookcase in the school shop. Another committee chose and mounted pictures for the room. Others brought plants from home and cared for them. The teacher furnished some

reading materials and made arrangements with the library to borrow others. Committees were planned for in the homeroom meetings, and members volunteered according to their interests.

Other activities that have been found useful in building homeroom spirit are social activities, parties, sleigh rides, skating parties, etc. One homeroom teacher has been very successful in this respect by leading her pupils in projects to help others. Through their contribution to European relief, they have found "pen pals." Their activity in behalf of their friends, as well as the letters they share, provides a real basis for unifying the group.

Some teachers have found it helpful to have standing committees to whom certain duties are assigned. Others prefer to keep it entirely informal and to have no organization. Perhaps a combination of the two methods is best. In this plan, committees are appointed for specific tasks as the need arises and are dismissed when they have completed the assignment. This procedure enables each member of the group to have experience on a committee. At the same time it does not permit committee work to grow monotonous and uneventful.

In addition to activities designed to build group spirit, there are many other ways in which this experience can contribute to the growth of pupils. Many schools choose the homeroom as the center for the student government organization. In most schools it is given the responsibility for more formal types of guidance, such as instruction in good manners, discussions on how to take one's place in a group, how to choose friends, and how to get along with one's family, and help in developing hobbies. Methods of group guidance are examined in another unit, but it should be stated here that the homeroom teacher will want to make use of the

interests, talents, and ingenuity of her pupils in planning this phase of her work so as to avoid the pitfall of making guidance a series of unwanted talks.

In order that she may plan to help each child effectively and make use of his interests and talents in building the homeroom program, it is necessary for the teacher to keep some kind of record of the information she gathers. It is almost impossible to remember all the important facts about any one child. And yet the keeping of records must not become cumbersome. It should be emphasized here that records are not ends in themselves. Their only excuse for being is that they may be used by the teacher in her effort to understand and guide her pupils. It is with this idea that some forms are suggested which will help the busy homeroom teacher to assemble, with a minimum of clerical effort, significant data concerning each member of the homeroom group.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Make a chart of the pupils in your homeroom. Indicate discovered interests and aptitudes, and note ways of employing these in the homeroom program.
2. How can the homeroom contribute to the growth in citizenship? Study the citizenship needs of your homeroom group. How will you plan to help your pupils to meet these needs? Make a specific list of possibilities.
3. What situations, if any, block an *esprit de corps* in your group? What are the underlying causes? What can you do to correct the situations?
4. What responsibility should the homeroom teacher assume for interpreting children's difficulties to the classroom teacher?
5. How much responsibility should the homeroom teacher

accept for helping control the behavior of her pupils in the classrooms of other teachers?

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GRAYBEAL, LYMAN B: "Problems of the Homeroom Teacher," *School Activities*, Vol. 13, pp. 291-292, April, 1942. To help boys and girls face with courage the perplexities of modern life, to help them accept responsibility in the building of the better world of tomorrow, is the opportunity offered the homeroom teacher. The writer views the building of mental health as the primary function of the homeroom and advocates programs so organized as to provide meaningful experiences in democratic living.

HANNEN, G. E.: "This Homeroom Really Earned Its Title," *School Management*, Vol. 14, pp 196-197, February, 1945. In the hurry and bustle of life in a great metropolis, one group of children found poise and calm and acquired a sense of organized living. Under the guidance of a wise teacher, they made friends and shared many worth-while experiences in a homeroom that was in reality a "home away from home."

HEUBLE, H. H., *et al*: "Homeroom: Open Door to Guidance

Opportunities," *Secondary Education*, Vol. 9, pp. 3-8, January, 1940. The pressures of competition and the tendency to be lost in the crowd are relieved by the opportunity to be identified with a small informal unit within the life of the school. In a Wisconsin high school, the guidance program was developed with the homeroom as the central unit. Methods of organization and plans evolved during the first year in a new school are discussed in this article.

KUHNLE, VERONICA T.: "Speech and Guidance Meet in the Homeroom," *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 34, p. 50, November, 1944. This is of special interest to the teacher who wishes to correlate guidance and classroom activities in her work with children who have speech defects. The author gives many practical suggestions for such a program.

PAYNE, WILLIAM D.: "Experiences in Homeroom Administration," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-school Principals*, Vol. 30, pp. 120-123, April, 1946. Methods used in organizing homerooms are discussed and evaluated, with careful attention given to the author's experiences in two high schools. A study of methods in these schools indicates the superiority of the 4-year homeroom group plan.

PEASE, JAMES E., and ELIZABETH ZIMMERMAN: "Homeroom a Guidance Center," *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 37, pp. 49-50, January, 1946. The authors list the duties of a homeroom teacher in building what they call a "homeroom spirit." While they would keep the homeroom as informal as possible, they suggest certain types of committee work. Included in the article is a helpful and comprehensive outline of a year's program for the homeroom.

SMITH, W. SCOTT. "A Plea for the Homeroom," *School Activi-*

ties, Vol. 17, pp. 3-4, September, 1945. The change in the character of the secondary school population and the change in the philosophy of education are held responsible for the development of the homeroom. The writer indicates ways in which the homeroom can fulfill three functions: the guidance function, the institutional function, and the administrative function.

WAGNER, JOSEPHINE E.. "Factors Conducive to the Effective Functioning of the Homeroom Organization," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-school Principals*, Vol 30, pp. 88-100, January, 1946. A number of phases of the organization of the homeroom were included in a study made by a committee in a certain high school. While the findings offer nothing surprising or new, it is interesting to note the variety of feelings regarding the homeroom as expressed by different schools and especially interesting to note the important role assigned to the teacher by the schools participating in the study.

UNIT 5

The Homeroom Teacher's Cumulative Pupil Personnel Record

Two boys in Miss Smith's tenth-grade homeroom were in trouble. They had entered the principal's office after school hours and proceeded to mimeograph a little newspaper which they called *The Scandal Sheet*. Although it contained nothing libelous, it made some uncomplimentary remarks about certain teachers and pupils, even if it gave no facts to back up the statements made. It contained some good writing.

There was some doubt as to how the boys had entered the office. The janitor thought it was locked, but the boys declared it had not been. There was, of course, no doubt that they had used the mimeographing equipment without permission.

When *The Scandal Sheet* appeared in circulation, there was consternation in the school, and some of the teachers who had been represented as less than perfect immediately

demanding that something drastic be done. The principal was inclined to act at once. However, Miss Smith persuaded him to wait until she had an opportunity to investigate.

One boy, Charles Roush, had moved to the school district only 6 months previously. His scholastic record was the only report that had been received from his former school. It was a report with average grades in all subjects except English, in which he had a high grade. In her homeroom files, Miss Smith found that Charles's attendance had been somewhat irregular but not to the degree that legal action was indicated. There were copies of three letters she had sent to his parents in regard to difficulties with other teachers, but there had been no replies. She had not visited the home. There was a note indicating that she and the other teachers had discussed these problems and that each had had conferences with Charles, but nothing further had been done. Beyond this there was nothing in the folder.

Her next move was to get in touch with Charles's parents. She found that his father was a night reporter on a large daily paper. Charles's stepmother, a young woman of 28, worked in the business office of the same paper. They knew nothing about the letters. Charles had probably taken care of that. Miss Smith and his parents had conferences with the boy.

The other boy, Eugene Farley, had spent his entire school life in this school system. His folder contained a brief report from the elementary school and the following materials gathered during his 2 years in this homeroom: a cumulative record sheet and his periodic report cards for the first 1½ years. These showed that he had been working up to his ability in all subjects except mathematics. He seemed to have a considerable amount of ability in this, but was doing poor work in class. There were also his autobiography and pupil questionnaire, both of which seemed to indicate good

adjustment. However, the cumulative personality rating sheet showed low ratings in self-direction. As an extracurricular activity he was interested in the journalism club. Two short bits of his creative writing were also in the folder.

Several conferences with the boys and two meetings of the homeroom teacher, principal, and three faculty members who knew the boys best culminated in the following judgment: The boys were to publish another edition of the sheet in which they were to make proper apologies to those they had maligned in the first issue. They were to state therewith that they expected little sympathy from those mentioned but were willing to bear the consequences, whatever they were. With this issue, *The Scandal Sheet* ceased publication. They were required to pay double the cost of materials used and a liberal rental for the use of the mimeograph.

The boys later applied for positions on the school newspaper and began work in journalism in a small way. Further consideration was given to the fact that Charles had not delivered the letters to his parents and that the teachers believed that Eugene was easily led. The total problem was not solved but was probably on its way to solution in so far as that was possible at this late date.

No evaluation of the handling of this situation has been made above. The alert and thoughtful teacher will treat the problem of the undelivered letters with concern for Charles's feelings, and she will endeavor to evaluate his relations with his father and stepmother. She will, of course, try to learn what led the boys to play this prank. Also, she will know that punishment connected with desirable pupil attributes is unfortunate. The principles governing treatment of such problems are found in other units of this book.

Attention should be given here to the place of the cumulative record in this case. Eugene, according to his teacher's

ratings, was easily led. This was not just a snap judgment, but the considered evaluation when the annual personality ratings were made. Unfortunately, there was no indication of any attempts to correct this situation after the annual ratings showed lack of improvement. His record was generally good, and this fact weighed in his favor in the final decision. Charles's cumulative record had not been brought up to date. This was indicated by the fact that the letter incident had not been investigated. Here is an argument for a cumulative record. It encourages teachers and counsellors not only to keep their records up to date but also to see that cases are followed through so that records *may* be kept up to date. This frequently prevents further difficulties. It is quite probable that Charles would not have had the temerity to engage in this prank if he had been followed through on the affair.

The homeroom teacher's cumulative record has other uses than that connected with pupils in difficulty. While it should be the first recourse for the teacher facing such pupils, it is invaluable in numerous situations with pupils seeking help or with those who need help but do not realize it. The teacher wishing to aid a pupil in the choice of a vocation or an avocation, a curriculum or extracurriculum, summer or week-end work, or college or vocational school will always refer to his cumulative record. In many cases, recommendations are requested by business, governmental, or educational organizations or individuals. These cannot be written intelligently without the cumulative record. This record is as important as the records of the psychiatrist or physician or the Army or Navy personnel departments. In fact, since it is built up during the formative period of the pupil's life, its value may surpass that of some of these in importance.

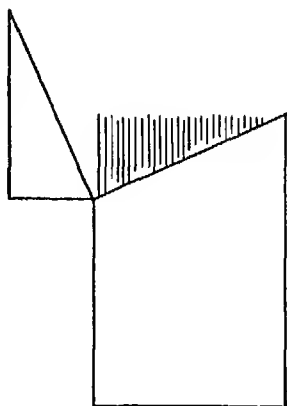
If the school uses the *Classroom Teacher's Cumulative Pupil Personnel Record* described elsewhere in this volume,

			1 SERIOUSNESS OF PURPOSE
			2 INDUSTRY
			3 INITIATIVE
			4 INFLUENCE
			5 CONCERN FOR OTHERS
			6 RESPONSIBILITY
			7 EMOTIONAL STABILITY
			HEALTH SIGNIFICANT HEALTH CHARACTERISTICS
			WORK HOURS, KINDS, EARNINGS
			INTERESTS & ACTIVITIES IN AND OUT OF SCHOOL SUMMERS, E.G., ATHLETICS, CAMPING, HOBBIES, SCOUTING, CLUBS, ETC
			TESTS VS ACCOMPLISHMENT DATA EXPLAINING EXTREME VARIANCE BETWEEN TESTING RESULTS & ACTUAL ACHIEVEMENT IN CLASS
			PLANS EDUCATIONAL & VOCATIONAL
PHOTO & DATE	GUIDANCE NOTES		
FATHER—GUARDIAN COMPLETE NAME OCCUPATION EDUCATION		MOTHER COMPLETE NAME OCCUPATION EDUCATION	

the homeroom teacher's copy of this record may serve as the cumulative form on which the pupil's developing story may be told. This form serves as a desirable record to be forwarded to another school inasmuch as it contains pertinent facts without being too intimate and without betraying confidences the pupil may have placed in the teacher. It should not be kept in the loose-leaf notebook, as in the case of the classroom teacher's record, but should be kept in the pupil's folder. This folder should be the depository for everything of importance or suspected importance regarding the pupil, except those items which might react unfavorably on the pupil in case they should come into the hands of unwise persons. Such facts should be kept only in the school safe, if at all, and should never be passed on to another school. The folder may hold the pupil's periodic report card, his individual cumulative summary personality rating sheet, his health card, his home-visit report, his autobiography, his questionnaire, and any anecdotal records the teacher may have. It should hold a record of his extracurricular activities, his hobbies, copies of creative work he has done, outstanding accomplishments, a list of organizations outside the school to which he belongs, a list of offices he has held, and his vocational preference profile. It may well hold, also, letters to and from his parents, statements of problems that seem to give most difficulty, and the educational plan that every pupil should be expected to keep.

Again, let it be stressed that the cumulative folder contains much information of importance to the pupil but that it will be of little value unless the homeroom teacher keeps it up to date and has a systematic plan for using it. A knowledge of a pupil's past experience, provided that it can be efficiently used, may be invaluable in connection with his present problems and his future plans. How can these records be filed effectively by the homeroom teacher? It is

suggested that a filing cabinet similar to the accompanying sketch be made in the school shop. The cabinet should be substantially constructed and provided with a lock, in order to keep the material comparatively safe and to conceal it from curious persons. However, as indicated above, any *strictly confidential* material should be kept in the principal's office.



QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Keep a record of the times you refer to the pupils' cumulative records and the reasons for these references. At the end of the month summarize them, and list as many arguments as possible for the homeroom teacher's keeping a cumulative pupil record.
2. Arthur Smith is apparently not living up to his capacities. What information contained in his cumulative record would you use to determine whether this is true?
3. List things not named in this unit which you believe should go into the homeroom teacher's cumulative folder.
4. Give a definite program for keeping a pupil's cumulative folder up to date.
5. Teachers occasionally complain of the work of record keeping. Under what conditions, if any, is this justified?
6. Attendance records are frequently considered administrative in nature. Cumulative pupil records are considered supervisory. What fundamental difference is there between administration and supervision?
7. How will you convince pupils of the value of cumulative records?
8. Suggest to the principal for a faculty meeting a panel dis-

cussion on the values and techniques of cumulative records in the homeroom.

- 9 Debate the question. *Resolved*, That all the values of the homeroom teacher's and classroom teacher's cumulative records are provided by a record kept in the principal's office.

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- BOYER, P. A., *et al* : "Conditions That Make Effective Guidance Possible. Pupil Personnel Records and Reports," *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. 12, pp 31-33, February, 1942. ". . . records are useful only for their ability to foster a more complete understanding of pupils and their problems." The author discusses preparing record forms, items in cumulative personnel records, anecdotal records, and the uses of cumulative and other records. A comprehensive bibliography follows the article.
- FIELSTRA, CLARENCE. "Using Cumulative Records," *Educational Leadership*, Vol. 2, pp 304-312, April, 1945. Underwriting the increasing emphasis being placed on the need of obtaining more information about the human

material educators work with, the author declares that good teaching can result only when every teacher is fully informed concerning each one of his pupils. He points out the need for a cumulative record and tells how it functions in a school's guidance program.

HIGHTOWER, H. W., and L. D. SAMUEL. "What Pupil Personnel Records Should Contain," *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 39, pp. 30-32, April, 1947. The authors deal with the question of personnel records from two points of view, that of the educator and that of the employer. From the educator's viewpoint functional guidance and effective education should accomplish the same goal, they are so closely related that many educators consider them inseparable. The cumulative record makes a valuable contribution to effective education. The authors maintain that it is better to formulate a record system to meet the needs of the pupils and the community than to adopt one used in another school. They tell how this was done in Effingham, Ill.

From the viewpoint of the employer, the personnel record system should contain information useful to the prospective employer. A table is pictured, showing what items concerning a pupil are of most interest to the businessman.

TRAXLER, ARTHUR E.. *How to Use Cumulative Records*, Science Research Associates, Chicago, 1947. The author, a psychologist and one-time guidance chairman in a high school and now associate director of Educational Records Bureau, believes the cumulative record is an "indispensable instrument in a 'going' program of guidance." This handbook explains in detail the necessary procedure "to initiate and maintain all essential information about the individual student." A specimen for a record card which the author believes is

simple enough to be used in the average public high school is included. Test scores and interpretations, as well as data about the pupil's health, home background, grades, etc., are vital statistics which Dr. Traxler believes should be in the child's cumulative record. The manual is intended for junior and senior high schools.

TRAXLER, ARTHUR E : "The Cumulative Record in the Guidance Program," *School Review*, Vol. 54, pp. 154-161, March, 1946. On the thesis that no thorough guidance program is possible which does not include a cumulative record understood and used by counselors and teachers alike, the author discusses the following. What the cumulative record is, the characteristics of a desirable cumulative record, record of test results and personality appraisal, faculty education in guidance. A simplified version of the American Council on Education Cumulative Record Card for Junior and Senior High Schools is pictured.

The Pupil Questionnaire

Probably more important information can be obtained from a pupil in a short time by means of a questionnaire than in any other way. The same information may be obtained by an individual interview, when the interviewer has the questionnaire as a check list. However, by use of the questionnaire, a practically unlimited number of pupils can provide information in the time required to interview one person.

A caution that should be observed is that the questionnaire should ask for only those types of information which the pupil gives without any reservation. For instance, he will not object to telling what kind of books he likes to read but will hardly be expected to answer truthfully if asked whether his parents live together harmoniously.

Another caution refers to the way a question is stated. If it is so framed as to get facts, it is much better than if it merely asks for vague generalizations. An effective question would be: Name the books you have read in the past month. An ineffective one is: Do you read many books?

The questionnaire has often been the first step in the or-

ganization of a guidance program. In such cases a questionnaire has been given to every pupil. When these blanks have reached the school office, they have highlighted the need for a place to file them. If they are merely piled on a shelf in the principal's closet, their likelihood of being used is practically nil. However, if the principal sees that a folder is provided for each questionnaire, and that these are filed alphabetically, he has taken an important step toward an organized program. Furthermore, when this step has been taken, an incentive has been provided for placing other types of information in the folder, such as anecdotal records, health cards, test scores, etc. Finally, the presence of such materials, properly and efficiently filed, should encourage principal, counselor, and teacher to make use of them.

Thus, the questionnaire may become something much more important than a mechanical means of gathering information. It may even be the beginning of an effective guidance program.

How the questionnaire is presented to pupils is important. If it is merely handed to the pupils by a number of different teachers, each giving her own or no instructions, it may be very ineffective. If it is presented in a large room by a skilled person, who does not overemphasize its importance but who makes it appear to be really worth while, it will be filled out seriously by a large majority of the pupils. If it must be presented in homerooms, then all teachers participating in the affair should be called together for thorough briefing on desirable procedures. Its importance justifies skilled handling.

A questionnaire is shown on the following pages.

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- HUBBARD, FRANK W.. "Questionnaires," *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. 9, pp. 502-507, December, 1939.

In view of perennial floods of questionnaires this is an interesting study. The author reviews the findings on the two major complaints against questionnaires, reliability and validity, lists 10 elements for obtaining a high percentage of returns, and presents some trends and innovations.

HUBBARD, FRANK W.: "Questionnaires, Interviews, Personality Schedules," *Review of Educational Research*, Vol. 12, pp. 534-541, December, 1912. The author reviews the findings of various authorities and of other research studies on the questionnaire. They include the following preparation of, administration of, sampling, follow-up, reliability, and special use of the questionnaire, the interview, recording, vocabulary, and special uses, and personality schedules and critical appraisal of personality measures. A bibliography is listed.

KOOS, L. V.: "Specific Techniques of Investigation, Observation, Questionnaire, and Rating," *National Society for Education*, 27th Yearbook, Part II, pp. 275-290. After discussing on the three techniques of observation, questionnaire, and rating, and giving bibliographical information in each case, the author concludes that they bear an important relationship to each other and that, of the three, observation is the most indispensable, though the other two techniques have yielded notable and valuable results.

LEWIS, JAMES A.: "Dowagiac High School's Conduct Questionnaire," *Clearing House*, Vol. 13, pp. 367-368, February, 1939. The author, a high school principal, presents an effective study of the follow-up of the results of a student-prepared conduct questionnaire.

VOCATIONAL INTEREST AND INFORMATION FORM ^o

Seattle Public Schools, Seattle, Washington

SUGGESTIONS FOR THE USE OF THIS FORM

School studies and activities, counseling interviews, experimental jobs, and other experiences offer students an opportunity to study themselves and to make plans for their future work. This form has been planned to aid young men and women to gather in one place a record of their attitudes, interests, and ambitions which have a bearing on important vocational decisions. The form is not a test. There are no right or wrong answers to the questions. It offers an opportunity to record facts and opinions which may be discussed with parents, teachers, and other students.

(One student is usually
is planned to record that
and then filed in the folder
ers about his future plan,
attained plans, changes may be more easily
in lead pencil, and alteration in the future

Answers will be held strictly confidential. They should indicate present interests and ambitions. Filling out this blank offers an opportunity for every student to do some serious thinking about himself.

SECTION A—PERSONAL HISTORY

1. Name	Date	Date of Birth	Yr ..	Mo ..	Day ..
2. Home address					
3. Place of birth	Location of grade school				
4. Father's nationality	Mother's nationality				
5. Did father graduate from grade school	high school		college		
Did mother graduate from grade school	high school		college		
Is father living	Is mother living				
Do you live with both parents	Mother only		Father only		
6. Father's vocation	Is he now employed				
Mother's vocation	Is she now employed outside the home				
Vocation of brothers or sisters					
7. Health condition (good, fair, or poor)	Number of days you have been absent in the last year because of poor health				
Any physical handicaps (state which)					
8. Religious preference	Are you a church member		Which church		
9. Do you follow a system of saving	Do you have a bank account		Insurance		

SECTION B—PREFERENCES

1. Do you enjoy discovering your own way to do things					
2. Are you naturally obedient	Do you follow instructions readily				
3. Do you find it easy and interesting to make new friends					
4. Do you enjoy being with other people	Do you prefer to be alone				
5. Do you enjoy working with other people					
Do you find it easy to get along with others					
6. Do some people annoy you	What kind of people annoy you				
7. Do you make a strong finish	Do you often lose interest before finishing a job				
8. Which of the following statements most nearly describes your preference? Indicate by check after statement					
To be the leader, captain, or directing head	To have some chance to lead but not too much responsibility				
To do the actual work yourself and let someone else do the managing and worrying					

^o Used with permission

THE PUPIL QUESTIONNAIRE

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VOCATIONAL INTEREST AND INFORMATION FORM (Continued)

SECTION C—PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Here are some of the characteristics by which a person is often judged. How would you judge yourself in these matters? Take ample time to judge yourself carefully, then place a check in the column which most nearly describes you.

	Yes certainly	Yes in a general way	About 50 50	No in a general way	No absolutely
1 Do you make decisions without much hesitation?					"
2 Are you naturally enthusiastic?					"
3 Are you usually punctual?	-				
4 Do you become angry easily?					
5 Is it easy for you to forgive and forget?					-
6 Are you frequently gloomy or downhearted?					
7 Are you usually cheerful or happy?					
8 Are you usually self confident and self reliant?					
9 Do fears or worries bother you?					"
10 Do you find it easier to be honest in some situations than in others?					"
11 Do you find it easier to be honest with some people than others?					
12 Are you inclined to keep your head in an emergency?					"
13 Are you easily influenced by the crowd you happen to be with?	-				" " "
14 Is it easy to be loyal to your home or your friends when you are away from them?					"

SECTION D—RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES

	Like very much	Usual ly enjoy	Indif ferent to	Dis like		Like very much	Usual ly enjoy	Indif ferent to	Dis like
Listening to music	-				Playing basketball				
Attending theatres					Attending a volleyball game				" "
Seeing moving pictures					Playing volleyball				
Attending parties with the other sex					Attending a wrestling match				"
Dancing					Wrestling				
Visiting art exhibits	"				Attending a boxing match				
Riding in a car				-	Boxing				
Driving a car					Taking part in a track meet				
Playing a musical instrument					Attending a track meet				" "
Taking part in dramatics					Playing tennis				"
Selling tickets and similar activities					Watching a tennis match				"
Drawing cartoons or pictures				-	Skating				" "
Directing a play					Climbing				
Umpiring a game	"				Camping				
Attending a football game					Fishing				" "
Playing baseball					Horseback riding				"
Attending a baseball game				-	Boating	-			"
Playing football					Swimming				"
Keeping pets				-	Taking pictures				"
Listening to the radio					Developing and printing pictures				
Operating a wireless or radio					Playing chess				
Playing group games				-	Playing card games	-	-		" "
Attending a basketball game				"	Playing billiards	-	-		"

VOCATIONAL INTEREST AND INFORMATION FORM (Continued)

SECTION E—GENERAL AND VOCATIONAL INFORMATION

Your special interests or hobbies _____
 Kind of moving pictures you like best _____
 Three books you have enjoyed reading _____
 Magazines read and enjoyed _____
 What you do in leisure time _____
 Any particular problem or question you have about your future work _____

Occupations you would choose if you could undertake several

- 1 _____
- 2 _____
- 3 _____

Occupation you believe you would like to be engaged in ten years from today _____

Experiences or reading which caused you to feel you have ability for this kind of work _____

Value to society of any of the occupations you have checked _____

Occupations your parents or friends have suggested for you _____

Have you thought of the difference between having money to spend and the possibility of putting money to work for you _____

Would you like help or suggestions about any habits or temptations which you feel may prevent you from making a life success _____

Have you considered your own chances of success in your chosen occupation from the standpoint of aptitude, interest, ability, and educational requirements _____

Do you plan to attend college _____ Which one _____

Have you checked your program for requirements for a high school diploma _____

Plans for the years after high school graduation _____

Occupations you have formerly considered

	Age at time considered	Definitely planned for	Merely thought about
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____

Jobs formerly or now held

Date	No of months employed	Employer	Monthly income
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____

List all extra curricular activities here clubs, offices, committees and chairmanships _____

_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____	_____

The Pupil Autobiography

The autobiography as a guidance technique has a number of advantages. In the first place, it is different. Most of the questionnaires used in learning about pupils are objective in nature. The autobiography is subjective in its approach and adds variety to guidance methods.

In the second place, the autobiography helps the pupil to understand himself because, perhaps for the first time, he is enabled to see the seemingly unrelated experiences of his life as contributing to the person he is. Many times the recognition of the "ongoingness" of experience serves as therapy to the child. It may stir him to greater effort, as he begins to see the kind of person he can be, and it may help him to plan his life more intelligently.

Besides doing this for the pupil himself, the autobiography is most helpful to the teacher in understanding her pupils. She very often finds in this frank, informal history clues that are invaluable in understanding the child's behavior patterns, his interests, and his attitudes.

One child who was exhibiting certain neurotic tendencies at school, for example, wrote in his autobiography: "I dream

of being a doctor. This may seem strange but it is not strange. For three generations men of my family have wanted to be doctors, and none of them has succeeded. If I did not want to be a doctor, I would even then try to be one to carry on the ambition of my family."

Various schools have used the autobiography successfully in different ways. Guidance-minded English teachers have used the writing of pupil autobiographies as an outgrowth of the study of the autobiographies of famous persons. History teachers have used this method to stimulate interest in the lives of the great. Perhaps it is best used by the homeroom teacher as a part of the homeroom guidance program.

It is wise not to hurry the procedure. The teacher may want to take time to read with the class a short modern autobiography. Present-day newspapers and magazines carry a number of them. The group might make an outline of elements they think should be included in their own life histories. It seems that the life story told chronologically is most helpful. The teacher should make the approach to this assignment as natural and pleasant as possible and should take pains to help the pupils understand the real purpose of the activity. In no case should she approach it in such a manner as to lead the children to think of it as prying into their personal affairs.

While the form for the autobiography should be adapted to the needs of each school, an outline of items that might be included, as well as suggestions for introducing it, is given below.

TO THE PUPIL

You have read some interesting stories about the lives of other people, most of whom are now called "great." But have you ever read the story of your own life? If not, you doubtless do not know what an interesting person you are,

nor do you have a very definite idea of what a fine person you can become.

To help you see yourself and understand yourself better is the first purpose of the autobiography which you are to be asked to write. The more careful you are in remembering and recording your experiences, your feelings, your thoughts, your desires, the more value the story will have for you, the more value it will have, also, for your counselor, which brings us to the second reason for asking you to write your own life story.

Your counselor desires to help you in your effort to grow into a worth-while person. A story of your life will help her to understand you better and therefore to help you more. You do not need to hesitate to make your story frank and true, for the information in it will be strictly confidential between you and your counselor.

The first thing to do in writing your autobiography is to relax. Then try to recall the interesting and significant experiences of your life in the order in which they happened. If you remember how you felt when a certain thing happened, or some thoughts you had or some plans you made, be sure to include them. Then write these in story form.

Feel free to put into your story anything, no matter how small, that you think has had some part in making you the kind of person you now are. There are some suggestions below, but you do not need to stop with these. Nor do you need to write about all of them. Choose what seems most important to you.

1. My life before I started to school
 - a. My first memory
 - b. What I have learned about myself from my parents and other adults
 - c. Things I liked to do best as a little child

2. My elementary school days
 - a. What I remember best about these first years in school
 - b. What subjects did I like best?
 - c. What subjects did I like least?
3. My life in high school
 - a. How do I feel about school? Am I proud of it and glad to be part of it or do I feel like the fellow who said it was pretty much like a penitentiary? Why do I feel as I do?
 - b. What do I like best about school?
 - c. What do I wish were different?
 - d. Which of my subjects do I like best?
 - e. Which do I like the least?
 - f. My opinion of why I have certain difficulties
4. My home
 - a. What about my home do I enjoy most?
 - b. In what ways do I wish my home were different?
 - c. Have I ever thought I'd like to run away from home? I wonder why that was so?
5. My church
 - a. What experiences that I have had in church and Sunday school have impressed me most?
 - b. Do I really enjoy going to church? In what ways am I most helped?
 - c. What do I wish were different?
6. My friends
 - a. What kind of people do I most enjoy being with?
 - b. What is there about them that I like?
 - c. If I could be the person I most desire to be, whom would I be like?
7. My interests and hobbies
 - a. What do I like to do best when there is nothing I have to do?
 - b. What are my hobbies? Is there a new hobby I'd like to build?
8. My future
 - a. What occupation would I like to enter?
 - b. Do my parents share my ambitions?

9. My favorites.
 - a.* Who is my favorite movie star?
 - b.* Who is my favorite radio star?
 - c.* Who is my favorite athlete?
 - d.* Who is my favorite teacher?
 - e.* Why have I chosen these?
 10. My fears
 - a.* I wonder if I have ever been afraid of anything?
 - b.* What made me afraid?
 - c.* How have I tried to overcome my fears?
 - d.* To what extent have I succeeded?
 11. My perplexities
 - a.* What three things do I wonder about most?
 12. And now if, by some magic power, it were possible for me to have the three and only things I wish for most, what would they be?
-

UNIT 8

The Anecdotal Record

As is indicated in the unit on Personality Rating, some scales provide for an incident which will explain a particular trait evaluation. An example might be as follows: A pupil is rated 2 in Industry. This rating is described as "Needs constant pressure." An anecdote accompanying this rating could be: John started the year with excellent grades and it looked as if he might belie all that had been said by his teachers about him. Toward the end of the first 6-week period, his work began to go down in quality. He was told by his teachers that consistent work would have to be done if he were to maintain his present standing. He started the second period with a slight improvement but at the end of 2 weeks was on the toboggan. A conference between his homeroom teacher and his parents brought some improvement. Conferences between homeroom teacher and class teachers were followed by a number of interviews intended to keep his work up in all subjects. The efforts brought results, but the teachers agreed that something more than teacher pressure would be necessary if this young man were to be capable of directing his own activities. Some kind of motivation of an intrinsic nature must be supplied. A care-

ful study of his background, his activities, and his interests was begun with the idea of making him a self-starter and continuous producer.

Clearly stated pictures of a pupil's activities are valuable. In fact, if the school is to know him well enough to presume to describe him, it must have the facts.

The candid story of his activities and apparent attitudes is usually known as the "anecdotal record." The teacher merely tells an accurate story of what happened in a particular situation and may make one or more evaluative statements. It is customary to separate the evaluation from the factual statement. But isolated anecdotal records may be of little more value than a personality rating by only one person. If such records are to be of real value, they should contain observations by a number of teachers under different conditions.

It is suggested elsewhere in this volume that anecdotal records be made by individual classroom teachers on the backs of pupils' cumulative record sheets and that in each case a carbon copy of the anecdote be sent to the homeroom teacher. If the latter considers the item sufficiently important, she will have copies made and sent to all the other teachers of that pupil. She may also send copies to the principal and the school counselor. These anecdotes by a half dozen or more faculty members could be invaluable, particularly if the pupil's case should be brought up in a guidance clinic. These recorded doings and sayings of the pupil would be much more valid than general oral opinions of those present at the clinic and very likely would broaden the base of information.

Brown and Martin,¹ directors of the Adolescent Study in the University High School at Oakland, Calif., give an illus-

¹ Marion Brown and Vibella Martin, "Anecdotal Records of Pupil Behavior," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, Vol. 13, pp. 205-208, April, 1938.

tiation of this principle in the story of Tom, about whom anecdotes were written by several persons under differing situations.

Seven anecdotes were written, two by teachers who observed him on the playgrounds, three in typical classrooms, one at a class party, and one in a metal shop.

On the playground he performed with zest and vigor, doing more than was expected of him in picking up equipment at the end of the hour. In a French class he showed no interest and comparable success. In another academic class his attitude was the same. In a third class (drawing) he dashed in, went to work, asked for help, and worked assiduously during the entire period. In shop he showed the same enthusiasm and asked permission to work during the noon hour. At a class party he associated himself with a group of boys, and did not dance or pay any attention to the girls.

As a whole these anecdotes probably give a fairly accurate picture of the boy, but one can imagine what an incomplete impression would have been given if only one or two observations had been recorded. The anecdotal record gives a "living" picture of the pupil. Some school administrators ask teachers to record a certain number of anecdotes each semester or year on each pupil. This may be overdoing it. Some pupils seem to be so nearly normal that this requirement might be superfluous. It is probable, also, that such a requirement may encourage teachers to record insignificant items just to "get it over with." Teachers should be alert at all times to pupils' behavior and should record anything favorable or unfavorable about a pupil that would seem to be significant in his guidance.

In the author's opinion a statement of the teacher's reaction to something a pupil has said or done is not extremely important. Teachers' judgments, just as those of many other persons, may not be very significant. Certainly in many

cases they will be somewhat less than objective. *Anecdote* is merely a recently evolved title for evidence in a case. Why, then, should we evaluate it if we do not do the same with facts obtained in other ways? Evaluation of isolated facts, by isolated individuals of whose objectivity of mind we are not sure, might even be dangerous. Perhaps a better procedure for the teacher is to indicate whether the act or statement appears to be typical or atypical with that particular pupil.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Select a week when every teacher is asked to observe incidents worthy of recording. Let it be understood that not every teacher is *required* to report anecdotes, but every teacher is expected to be alert to the possibility of recording something significant on one or more pupils. At the end of the week, ask for a meeting of all teachers for reports and discussion of the values of the anecdotal record.
2. Evaluate the authors' suggestion that the evaluative statement in connection with the anecdotal record be omitted.
3. This book recommends that anecdotal records be kept on backs of cumulative pupil personnel record sheets. Compare this technique with that in which a separate sheet is used.
4. Select a pupil who is somewhat of a problem case. Prepare a case study of this pupil, giving particular attention to the use of anecdotal records.

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1941. In an editorial the author comments on certain problems that arise in the composition and use of the anecdotal record: what to include, how best to collect the information included, how to interpret, etc.

BROWN, M. A., and V. MARTIN: "Anecdotal Records of Pupil Behavior," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, Vol. 13, pp. 205-208, April, 1938. The authors, two directors of the Adolescent Study in University High School, Oakland, Calif., evaluate the anecdotal record, which consists of little cross sections of significant behavior. They list four purposes it is used for, none of them for marking achievement or grading; give some case studies; and conclude that to the extent the anecdotal record stimulates teachers to look at boys and girls as distinctive individuals it is of value.

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and training of the teacher and the type of educational program of the school.

McCORMICK, C. F.: "Anecdotal Record in the Appraisal of Personality," *School and Society*, Vol. 53, pp. 126-127, Jan. 25, 1941. The author, a junior high school principal, presents the form of the personnel and anecdotal record used by his teachers in a successful attempt by the entire teaching staff to "learn the student before attempting to teach him."

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SHEPPARD, ELWOOD II: "Let Comments Tell the Story," *Occupations*, Vol. 19, pp. 445-446, March, 1941. The author, chief of placement, Occupational Adjustment Service, Denver, Col., who believes that concise, significant words should be used instead of the meaningless and hackneyed adjectives too often found on interviewers' personal evaluation of applicant records, has listed positive, negative, and other vivid, descriptive words in a chart compiled throughout a number of years' experience in placement work.

UNIT 9

The Home Visit

It is fair to assume that the teacher visits the home of a pupil because she needs help. It has become her duty to guide the child while he is in school, and in order to do that she realizes that she must understand the home from which the pupil comes and receive as much help as she can from his parents. For, in spite of the current concern about the status of the home, as a rule parents remain the persons who are most vitally interested in the welfare of their children.

This does not mean that the teacher can expect to find perfection in the home situation any more than parents can expect to find perfection when they visit the school. This fact gives the parent and teacher a basis for mutual helpfulness in their efforts on behalf of the child. Parents will welcome the teacher if she comes in the spirit of friendship and cooperation.

Of course, the teacher will be sympathetic and understanding. The parents will share with her the problems they face in rearing their children and she will keep inviolate the home's confidence in her. Some things worth the teacher's

remembering as she starts out on a home visit are suggested here.

1. Relax. This is an adventure and you'll probably meet some very interesting people
2. Learn. Even if the mother has had only an eighth-grade education, you'll be surprised at what she can teach you
3. Share. Not that you have so much superior knowledge, but this is a cooperative enterprise and you have something worth while to contribute
4. Enjoy yourself. Each visit will open up some new vista of interest. If it tends to become boring, bring your sense of humor to the relief of the situation.
5. Remember, this is a visit, not a visitation.

While most of the outcomes of the teacher's visit must of necessity remain in the area of the intangibles, it is important for her to record information and impressions gained during her visit.

A form is presented below which should help the teacher to tabulate quickly such information and impressions and at the same time to make some record of adjustment problems and of cooperative planning done by her and the child's parents. A section is also provided to record the follow-up work she does as a result of the visit and any noticeable outcomes of this work.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. One of the contentions against the home visit is that too often the mother feels at a disadvantage when her child's teacher visits the home. Make a list of reasons for this feeling on the part of the mothers, and work out a plan which would help you dissolve such feeling were you to find it while visiting.

RECORD OF HOME VISITS

Name of student	Address		Telephone	
Father	Health	Education	Occupation	Interests
Mother	Health	Education	Occupation	Interests
Brothers	Ages	Significant facts regarding them		
		Sisters	Ages	Significant facts regarding them

The home is located in a foreign——. industrial——, residential——, rural—— section

It is comfortably—adequately—, inadequately—equipped

The pupil studies in his own room—— in a family room but alone——, in the presence of others——

The atmosphere of the home is friendly—, uninterested—, unfriendly—

It appears to be a home where parents exercise complete control____, where parents and children cooperate____, where there is no control____

This child contributes to the life of the family by—

Evidences of adjustment problems within the home

Parents' ambitions for child-

Problems to be faced in realizing these

Parents' attitude toward school is constructive____, uninterested____, unfriendly____

Ways the school can serve this home-

Ways this home can contribute to the school

Remarks

2. Select the three least troublesome and the three most troublesome children in your class. Assume that you were asked to make a visit to the home of each of these. Make a plan for each visit. Include a purpose, a way of approach to your problem, ways you plan to gain the mother's cooperation if that is lacking, desired outcomes, and a method of recording information.
3. Janet, a member of your homeroom group, is a practical joker. Last week she told one of your colleagues that she was a "lousy" teacher, and she was suspended. You thought the treatment was a little harsh. The next time you visit Janet's home, her mother complains to you of the way the matter was handled. How would you handle this situation, remembering that many advocates of home visiting believe it to be the most effective part of a good public relations program?
4. Organize a plan for visiting the home of each member of your homeroom. Include a method for arranging with the home for your visit, a time schedule that will permit a reasonable amount of leisure for you, a tentative plan for the visit, and a method for recording data.

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- BURMA, JOHN H. "Home Visiting Pays Dividends," *Nation's*

Schools, Vol. 37, p. 32, February, 1946. Home visiting is presented from the principal's point of view. The author recommends the services of a trained visiting teacher who would in no way interfere with the work of the homeroom teacher. In this article particular attention is given to the problems of delinquent children, although the author recognizes the public relations value of a program of home visiting.

GRAY, BEATRICE: "Home Visits, Problem or Pleasure?" *Journal of Home Economics*, Vol. 40, pp. 73-74, February, 1948. The author lists four steps essential to an effective home visit. Each step is discussed in some detail, and suggestions for working out each step are given. Basic to all of this, contends the author, is the teacher's sincere desire to meet the educational needs of the child.

JACKSON, C. W.: "Meet the Folks," *School Executive*, Vol. 60, p. 24, April, 1941. A brief case history reveals the results of a home visit made by a wise teacher. The author believes that contacts between parents and teachers help keep them "human" and that when both work on the educational problems of boys and girls the problems soon cease to exist.

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of changes effected in curricula and procedures points up the tremendous value of a well-planned visiting program

ROBY, MAUD F.: "A New Adventure in Calling," *Journal of the National Education Association*, Vol. 33, p. 113, May, 1944. The author recommends home visiting not only for the benefits derived for teaching, but for the sheer joy and fun that the teacher gets from learning to know her pupils before they enter her homeroom. This teaching principal shares a well-made plan for visits and her method of recording her findings.

SCHREIBER, NICHOLAS. "Home Visits That Count," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-school Principals*, Vol. 32, pp. 177-179, February, 1948. This principal would choose the members of the school staff best fitted by temperament and training to make home visits. He feels this is the most effective part of a public relations program. He includes in his article a list of suggestions for the visitor.

Guidance by the Classroom Teacher

The tenth-grade class began to read *Ivanhoe*. The struggle was terrific and unsuccessful. The difficulty? Vocabulary. The teacher discovered that the best readers in the class were finding as many as 12 new words on a single page. What could be done about it? Of course, she could blame the elementary school for not having taught the children to read. Or, realizing that her job was to teach children, she could begin where they were and guide them by carefully planned steps to where they ought to be. She therefore forsook *Ivanhoe* in favor of other reading material until that happy day when reading the charming classic could be a pleasant experience for the class. She used the discovered interests, needs, and abilities of her pupils to plan the next unit of work, and she was careful that the new materials would afford ample opportunities for developing skill and promoting growth.

The juniors were reading Wordsworth's *Tintern Abbey*. They discussed the author's philosophy and some of his re-

ligious concepts Jim interposed a question, "Are there still some people who believe there is a God, and a life after death?" The boy's question was sincere, and there ensued a thoughtful consideration of some of the problems the pupils had in this field. The teacher recognized that if boys and girls are to achieve self-realization in its broadest sense, they must discover their kinship with the universe. Thus English teacher used literature not as an end in itself but as an instrument to help boys and girls grow.

The history class was tracing the development in ideas about the right way to deal with criminals. A committee brought in a report of experiments being carried on with young girls who had been committed to penal institutions. Ann was especially interested in the story of one of the women pioneers in the field. She said, "She is so fine, but how could just a kid like me ever do anything worth while like that?" The class joined in a discussion of Ann's problem. The history class had given an opportunity for exploring a worth-while vocation. More than that, it had afforded an opportunity for the discovery of the worth of individuals.

Mary had been an A student in Latin. The teacher began to notice lack of attention on Mary's part. Then one day Mary failed in a test. A check with other teachers showed that all the girl's schoolwork was suffering. A conference with Mary revealed a serious problem with which she was glad to have help. The classroom teacher became a counselor.

The situations presented above illustrate four important guidance functions of the classroom teacher. In the first place, the classroom teacher who accepts the philosophy that true guidance permeates every phase of school life will plan a child-centered curriculum. Her subject will not serve as a bed of Procrustes on which her pupils are measured. Rather, the subject will be made to fit the needs of the

pupils, and organization of materials for classroom use will be based largely on their discovered interests.

When the Freedom Train was touring the country, it was very much in the conversation of high school pupils. As they looked at the documental history of their country on exhibit in the train, they experienced a new sense of pride in their country's achievements. With interest so keen, what an opportunity classroom teachers had! It was a good time for social studies teachers to help high school boys and girls evaluate the ideologies upon which forms of government are based, to discover some of the elements of sacrifice and hardship which have helped to make the American heritage possible, and to face frankly the contribution which must be made by their own generation if America is to become in an even larger way the land of opportunity for all men regardless of race, color, or creed. If this could happen in a social studies classroom, the pupils would have learned not only a great many facts but they would also have arrived at a new understanding of citizenship and its implications for them, and, if the challenge had been strong enough, they would have gained a deeper feeling regarding individual worth.

The English teacher can ill afford to miss the opportunity to read with her pupils some of the great literature that came from the minds of men as they felt the heart beat of a nation emerging from colonial status to a position of importance among world powers. She can ill afford to miss this chance to read with her pupils some of the literature of today as a means of quickening their awareness of the world in which they live. If there are those in the class who can express themselves in writing, here is an opportunity for creativity.

And thus each department can find ways of using this common interest to stimulate new interests, to develop new appreciations, to learn important facts, and, most of all, to

build a patriotism that is sincere in purpose, broad in outlook, and free from intolerance and prejudice. Such a project is guidance in a very real sense.

In the second place, the classroom teacher can so plan her work as to make a distinct contribution to the personality growth of pupils. The science teacher who can help young people to feel the stability and dependability of nature does much to help them feel secure in the world. To help them appreciate the miracle of life in all its forms will increase their feeling of kinship with the universe and give new meaning to life and new respect for self.

A third way in which the classroom teacher can contribute to the guidance program is by introducing her pupils to careers in her particular field. It is often difficult for boys and girls of high school age to understand why some courses of study are included in the curriculum. This is often due to the fact that they are uninitiated in the realities of the world of work. A survey of the careers to which the study of a particular subject will contribute, as well as an acquaintance with the accomplishments of others in the field, should give young people a deeper understanding of opportunities open to them and should aid them as they plan their own careers.

In the fourth place, the classroom teacher has the privilege of counseling individual students. Frequently when a child is in difficulty, his schoolwork suffers. The alert teacher will be conscious of this and try to help the pupil at the point of his difficulty. Many teachers arrange for individual conferences with pupils in which the child is helped to appraise his work and find ways in which he can improve it. Such conferences often help boys and girls to talk over other problems that are hindering school progress. The thoughtful classroom teacher will be understanding, will explore possibilities of

solution with the child, and, if she feels the problem is one that needs specialized help, will guide the child to the proper person.

Without a doubt, such a concept of the curriculum brings with it more careful planning on the part of the teacher. But it brings more than that. It brings a new vitality and a new meaning to subject matter. It lifts the textbook from the realm of theory to a throbbing, living experience for teacher as well as pupil, an experience in which routine and drudgery give way to life and challenging adventure.

Elsewhere in this volume are offered some forms that it is hoped will aid the classroom teacher as she plans to carry out the guidance functions.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Make a seating chart for each of your classes.
2. List five discovered interests of your pupils that will be useful in stimulating new interests. Outline a plan for doing this.
3. In what ways can the subject you teach contribute to the guidance needs of your pupils?
4. Make plans for helping your pupils prepare a chart of occupations in your field of study.
5. Select two children whose work in your class is below what you have a right to expect it to be. Outline the steps by which you will try to help them.

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making a satisfactory adjustment to life. She calls attention to many ways in which a teacher, having diagnosed the child's problem, can give constructive help in finding a solution.

DUNSMOOR, CLARENCE C.: "Guidance Checklist for Classroom Teachers," *Clearing House*, Vol. 13, pp. 428-430, March, 1939. Believing that the classroom teacher who wants to know and help her pupils will have the initiative to find time to do it, the author offers a check list to help her evaluate her efforts in this field.

PAITER, J. E.: "Atmosphere in the Classroom," *High Points*, Vol. 20, pp. 69-72, June, 1938. Granting that "atmosphere" is rather nebulous and intangible, the author nevertheless suggests certain ways of achieving an atmosphere conducive to learning. It is, she thinks, the responsibility of the teacher, and it springs from the warmth and friendliness of her personality.

PIERCE, PAUL R.: "Classroom Guidance of Democratic Living," *School Review*, Vol. 51, pp. 523-529, November, 1943. The author clarifies the philosophy which he believes is basic to classroom guidance in democratic living. He offers suggestions for correlating the work of the personnel center and the homeroom with that of the regular core classroom. He illustrates his theory by telling how it was done in one school. He asserts that the program advocated is practical for both large and small schools.

PREHN, E.: "Guidance Activities of the Classroom Teacher," *High Points*, Vol. 20, pp. 5-10, October, 1938. Acceptance of teachers as "guides" by their pupils is dependent on how successful the teacher is in conveying the idea that "teachers are human." The author believes that this is made possible by sharing the interests of pupils, by expressing appreciation of their achievements, and

by participating in their activities. In addition to this basic philosophy, the article presents specific methods the author has found helpful in guiding adolescent boys and girls.

ROSECRANCE, F. C.: "The Place and Activities of the Classroom Teacher in Guidance," *High School Journal*, Vol. 23, pp. 208-212, May, 1940. After stating carefully the concept of guidance upon which his ideas are based, the author designates these guidance functions to the classroom teacher: becoming a student of students, understanding situations within the school which affect pupils, with an eye to correcting undesirable ones, and working with children as individuals and as groups in an effort to help them achieve growth.

WILLIAMS, C. M.: "Guidance in the Classroom," *Educational Method*, Vol. 19, pp. 343-348, March, 1940. A brief and lively description of typical children in a classroom situation lays the foundation for a discussion of a basic philosophy of guidance. A teacher describes how, through a guidance program, she seeks to help each child to find security and to build a set of values for himself.

The Seating Chart

The idea of a seating chart as a means whereby the classroom teacher can learn to know her pupils may seem out of harmony with the educational philosophy declared in the beginning of the book. It is not so intended. The authors recognize that the ideal situation in a school is the physical environment in which the furniture is placed in the arrangement most helpful to the group in the enterprise in which they are engaged. However, they realize that in most schools the seats are still arranged in rows and fastened to the floor.

It is with that thought in mind that a seating chart is suggested. The teacher should make out the chart as early in the term as possible. It will help her, if she does not already know the names of her pupils, to learn them readily and at the same time to learn something about each one.

The teacher should place in the blocks any information which would help her in adjusting her classroom plans to the interests and needs of her pupils. Some items that might prove helpful follow:

- 1 Pupil's name
- 2 Chronological age
3. Mental age
4. Previous achievement in subject or, if it is a new subject, previous general achievement
5. Special interests
- 6 Special abilities
- 7 Handicaps

It is not desirable for pupils to be given a chance to see the ratings of their fellows. One teacher indicated mental

TIME _____ SECTION _____ SUBJECT _____

Mary Smith 13-5 14-2 A Sewing, basketball, music, decorating Nervous, Overweight		John Doe Ø B Airplane Construction, reading Hearing difficulty		

ability on the chart by the use of symbols. A circle indicated average ability to learn school subjects, a plus sign within the circle indicated high intelligence and a double plus sign very superior ability. A minus sign within the circle represented slightly inferior intelligence while a double minus represented a very low score. These signs might well have exactly opposite meanings, or any insignia unknown to pupils might replace them.

It is needless to add that such a chart will not only help a teacher to know her pupils but also will aid her in planning the pupils' educational program. The fact is that if teaching is to be effective it must begin where the pupil

is. And true as this statement may seem, many teachers are still beginning at the first chapter of the textbook and following it page by page, regardless of the ability or achievement of their pupils. The information on the seating chart should help the teacher to understand rather quickly the type of work she can expect from a given individual.

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UNIT 12

The Classroom Teacher's Cumulative Pupil Personnel Record

No teacher can do effective counseling without adequate information about the pupil she plans to counsel. But neither can she teach pupils successfully until she has first "learned" them. Let us assume that a teacher meets 150 pupils each day. She may feel that she knows something about each one of them—his name at least—which cannot always be guaranteed. It is hardly fair to expect her to know a great deal more, unless she has a convenient means of obtaining that information.

The *Classroom Teacher's Cumulative Pupil Personnel Record*¹ is intended to provide that information which a teacher cannot be expected to remember. It comes to the teacher in a loose-leaf notebook 6 inches wide and 9½ inches high. A special sample page is given on page 104.

¹ Frank G. Davis, *The Classroom Teacher's Cumulative Pupil Personnel Record*, Royal Stationery Co., Lewisburg, Pa., 1944.

While the record form is not large, it contains room for a variety of information. The material at the top is virtually that which is obtained by the school census taker. The family information furnishes an excellent background for that which follows. While the family income is not requested, the family's economic status is pretty well indicated under "Occupation."

Although "Health Handicaps" is not a complete health report, it is the main information in which a classroom teacher should be interested except that she should know about common diseases and be alert to observe them in her pupils.

The categories "Home Conditions," "Type of Discipline," and "Cooperation with School" do not by any means cover the subject, but are perhaps about all the classroom teacher should be expected to know. The authors suggest that another note be included, perhaps under the heading "Other Conditions." Items which can be listed under "Special Aptitudes and Accomplishments" may provide information which will spell success for a particular teacher. A case comes to mind in which a boy had one obvious talent but, on account of a slight speech defect and his reticence because of it, concealed others just as important. The teacher would have prevented embarrassment to both the pupil and herself if she had been able to open a book and in a minute's time get a picture of his many talents. Incidentally, his education would have been considerably advanced by such knowledge.

The item "Pupil Attitude Toward School; Success, Failure; Work, Play," provides a considerable mental hygiene picture of the child. This, along with "Personality Description" following, furnishes the basis for some important teacher decisions. The items on the record not only provide some significant information to the teacher but also give her

CLASSROOM TEACHER'S CUMULATIVE PUPIL PERSONNEL RECORD

Name _____ Date _____
 Home Address _____ Date of Birth _____

Occupation _____ Schooling _____ Religion _____
 Father _____
 Mother _____
 Guardian _____

Num. of Children in Family _____ Girls _____ Ages _____ Boys _____ Ages _____ Num. at home _____

Grade and Year _____ th (19____ 19____) _____ th (19____ 19____) _____ th (19____ 19____)

Homeroom Teacher _____

HEALTH HANDICAPS _____

HOME CONDITIONS _____

Type of Discipline _____

Cooperation with School _____

SPECIAL ABILITIES AND ACCOMPLISHMENTS _____

PUPIL ATTITUDE TOWARD _____

School _____

Success, Failure _____

Work, Play _____

PERSONALITY DESCRIPTION _____

INTERESTS AND ACTIVITIES _____

Curricular _____

Extra curricular _____

Community _____

Leisure Time _____

TEST RESULTS _____

Intelligence _____

Reading _____

Achievement _____

Others _____

SCHOLASTIC RECORD _____

(List subject and grade in each case)

1st Sem 2nd Sem 1st Sem 2nd Sem 1st Sem 2nd Sem

a valuable check list as she observes the pupil in his daily contacts with pupils and teachers. "Personality Description" is not an adequate category. Since it must be brief, it should perhaps be "Outstanding Personality Trait." Such information as cannot be listed under one of the above categories can probably be found in the cumulative summary rating sheet in the pupil's homeroom folder.

The pupil's "Interests and Activities: Curricular, Extracurricular, Community, and Leisure Time" provides additional important information for the teacher. It is a matter of speculation how much of this information is the possession of the ordinary classroom teacher. It helps to take her pupils out of the category of names and numbers and place them in that of interesting personalities.

"Test Results," including "Intelligence, Reading, and Achievement" and perhaps those of aptitude and interests, furnish the classroom teacher with additional information which provides at a glance a rough guess as to whether a pupil is living up to his capacity and, perhaps, whether he may need diagnostic and remedial work in some subject. If the aptitude and interest test records are available, they may provide some tentative explanations for other test results as well as furnish data of significance touching the pupil's vocational future. The pupil's "Scholastic Record" furnishes additional evidence as to whether he is living up to his capacities and whether he might need remedial aid. His "Rank in Class" is, again, invaluable in checking his capacity and achievement.

The pupil's "Vocational Training and Work Experience" records remind the classroom teacher that this young person will be looking for a job some day and that she should have an interest in this phase of his life regardless of the subject she teaches. These experiences are probably closely related to the last item on the record, "Vocational Plans." His plans

may be definite or he may not have chosen his life's work. Either situation should be of vital concern to his classroom teacher. In either case she can provide in her courses opportunities which may help the pupil to choose his vocation or better train himself for his previous choice.

Finally, the classroom teacher should know how far a pupil intends to carry his education and what he is planning further, regardless of the choice. Oddly enough, every classroom teacher will probably agree that she herself will profit, as will the pupil, if she knows his educational plans.

While the record blank discussed here will no doubt be improved through use, it furnishes at this date an invaluable guide to the classroom teacher concerned about teaching the "whole child."

The information to be recorded on this sheet is relatively complete. This book is handed to the classroom teacher filled out, ready to use. Pupils' records are arranged alphabetically. It will be observed that the reverse side of the record sheet is blank. It is expected that in many cases a teacher will wish to write on the blank side of this sheet comments or anecdotes relating to the pupil. It may be that certain statements are sufficiently important to justify sending copies of them to the homeroom teacher. In that case, it is suggested that the teacher place a carbon paper and an additional sheet of blank paper under the face of the record when writing such statements and send the copy to the homeroom teacher. In some cases, the latter may care to have copies made and sent to other teachers in whose classes the pupil is enrolled. Thus, important information relating to a particular pupil is distributed to those who need it most, his classroom teachers.

But the teacher may wonder how these record books come to her completely filled out. The answer is that these facts are placed on the record form by the homeroom

teacher. This is not a great burden, since the homeroom teacher needs to be fully acquainted with her pupils, anyhow, and this is a good way to come to know them. After she has copied a pupil's record, it is handed to an office clerk, who makes six to eight copies, using tissue carbon paper. These copies are distributed to each teacher who deals with the pupil in class or other important activity, and they are placed in the teacher's record book in alphabetical order.

Experience has shown that a typist can copy these reports rapidly and that the cost is slight compared with the value of the information to the classroom teacher.

Why have this information cumulative? That is, why must it have piled up throughout the pupil's school life? It is necessary for the same reason that a reputable physician who has had a patient under his care for a number of years keeps a cumulative record. The record tells a story of the growth or deterioration of the patient, what treatment seems to have been effective and what doubtful, and what treatment has even been harmful. It is this same reason which makes any penitentiary insist on a complete history of every case. It is why a baseball team keeps a complete record of every hit, strike-out, or home run of any player. For instance, "Bobbie" Feller did not pitch as well as usual in the summer of 1948. His complete record is necessary to remind his critics that he is one of the outstanding pitchers of all time. Any evaluation of this ball player must be based on the records of more than a decade if it is to be fair to him. Human beings are *human* and are not always at the peak of their ability.

A caution, however, is pertinent here. A pupil's past should not condemn him to mediocrity. An unsuccessful past may furnish a challenge to a teacher to help him to be a success, perhaps in another direction.

When a psychiatrist takes a case, he insists on a complete history, even prenatal influences in some cases. He wants to know what occasions in a patient's life—thwartings, successes, disasters, pressures, and diseases—may have a causal relationship to the present condition. Therefore no teacher should feel that she is competent to deal intelligently with a pupil unless she knows him over a period of years. A teacher's knowledge of a pupil should be as complete as possible and should be kept up to date.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. In a school in which cumulative records are lacking, the principal might keep a record of the number of times over a certain period that teachers have asked him or any other school official for information on individual pupils.
2. In a school in which each pupil has a well-filled cumulative folder in the principal's or counselor's office, it would be profitable to keep a record of the number of times individual teachers examined these records or asked for information on individual pupils.
3. Another interesting bit of information relates to the comparative success of teachers who seek such information and of those who do not.
4. If your school has not yet adopted some scheme for classroom teacher records on all pupils, a committee might be appointed to study the problem and see whether some technique better than that recommended here can be devised.
5. If the scheme recommended in this unit is in use, a committee of teachers might study the problem of how to make it function best.

6. It would be well for individual teachers to experiment with different methods of making the record function successfully.

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garding the matter of making available to teachers such scientific data as that on physical examinations, group educational and intelligence tests, and psychological and psychiatric examinations. The author recommends more required courses dealing with the handicapped and the gifted.

Tests and Measurements in Guidance

As long as there have been schools, there have been tests. Today the importance of tests is recognized as much as it ever was. There is, however, a difference of opinion as to what place the test should hold in the development of the educational program and as to its importance as a basis for so-called "promotion." Those who accept the traditional philosophy believe that the teacher knows what material she has covered and is therefore qualified to write a test, the passing of which according to the teacher's judgment qualifies or disqualifies the pupil for advancement. They contend that in the last analysis life itself is one examination after another and that the school should prepare the pupil to live in a world where he will be tested and judged on the basis of his performance on the test. They hold, too, that life is competitive, that all his life a child will have to work with those who are perhaps more able than he, and that the school is a good place in which to learn to accept one's place

in a competitive society. In addition, they consider tests an effective stimulus to study.

In recent years, a different philosophy of testing has emerged. Those who accept this philosophy believe that while life is competitive there is one person with whom a child must consistently contend, and that is himself. They recognize that certain stimuli come from competing with others but they believe, too, that a person is more or less limited in the amount of true competition he can offer and accept. To these persons, tests become not ends in themselves but means to an end—means by which the curriculum can be made more meaningful, teaching more effective, and counseling more helpful. Tests become for the pupil not something to be dreaded, an invitation to sleepless nights and useless cramming, but aids in the fulfillment of his highest possibilities. It is this philosophy which is accepted by the authors, and it is the philosophy on which the discussions of this chapter are based.

There are many criticisms of tests that have been developed to implement the new philosophy of testing. Many of these criticisms have been fair, and for that reason they have stimulated thought and discussion and have aided in the development of better tests. It has been contended, for example, that early objective tests measured only memory and information. Results told the school nothing about the pupil's ability to use the information he had, or to bring reasoned judgment to bear on particular situations, or to organize information in such a way that it was usable in the thought process. Important advances have been made in this respect, and today our instruments of measurement attempt to assess many of these factors.

Subjective tests, also, have come back to their own as a means of helping the pupil to learn to organize his thinking and express his thoughts so that they will be intelligible to

others. Attempts are being made to overcome the weakness of the old essay-type question and to make it more truly a measure of certain types of achievement. Since this trend has been recognized, the remainder of the chapter will be devoted to the consideration of the objective test as an important technique in the modern school.

The value of objective tests for a given school depends upon the use the school makes of the results obtained. Persons who utilize test results thoughtfully find that they prove useful in many unsuspected ways. There are, however, certain values that are quite general. In the first place, tests offer objective measurements that are free from teachers' judgments. Many interesting studies have been made regarding the reliability of teachers' grades, the results of which are both surprising and disturbing. For it appears that no matter how carefully and conscientiously they are made, the personal element in teacher ratings is so strong in many cases that answers are weighted according to the teacher's own viewpoint. At the same time it must be recognized that teacher judgments cannot be eliminated, nor would it be good for them to be. The sincere teacher recognizes this and welcomes objective tests as a check on her own judgment of the progress her pupils make. In another unit, attention is given to the subject of teacher ratings.

In the second place, testing is a timesaving device in this day of crowded classrooms and heavy rosters. The objective test gets information quickly and, consequently, it is able to explore many more aspects of a given field than the old-type subjective test. Because the scoring is simple and can in some cases be done by the children themselves, it is a more economical use of the teacher's time and liberates her for cultural and recreational pursuits. In addition, this procedure is often useful to the pupils in helping them to dis-

cover where their weaknesses lie and in what areas they have real ability

Then, too, results obtained from the use of objective tests can help a teacher to plan her work according to the needs of her group. They enable her to discover areas unexplored by the children before or to disclose points at which certain things need to be retaught. If it is given at the conclusion of a unit of work, a good test will help the teacher to measure the effectiveness of her teaching and to determine the readiness of the class to begin new work.

Certain types of tests help the school to predict whether or not individual students are likely to succeed in specific subjects and thus serve as guides in course selection. Some will give indication as to how a particular group stands in relation to other groups of similar status. This is particularly helpful in the case of college preparatory students who, when they enter college, will be forced to compete with pupils from other schools.

Again, the value of tests lies in the contribution they make toward understanding individual children, their strengths, weaknesses, aptitudes, interests, and personality traits, thus offering sound bases for counseling. In another chapter the method of using test results in this important phase of school life is discussed at some length.

Finally, a carefully planned testing program is invaluable to the school principal. On the basis of test results he can evaluate the efficiency of the school. He can discover whether or not different areas of the curriculum are planned and administered within the ability of the pupils.

The success that can be achieved when a principal has this information was shown in the case of one school. A graduation exercise had come to an end. Down the aisle to the music of their school orchestra marched 200 boys and girls. There was the usual excitement that accompanies

graduation exercises. But there was something else, much more thrilling and meaningful to about thirty boys and girls and their teacher and counselors. These children had very limited ability as measured on both group and individual intelligence tests. After he had studied the test results for this group, the principal discovered that they were in a curriculum that was far too difficult and one in which they could not succeed. Their report cards indicated failure even in school citizenship. The roster was adjusted so that the children who had low ability to learn academic subjects met with the same teacher at the same time. The teachers were asked to plan their work within the ability of the children to succeed. It was a tremendously difficult task, but they did it. The children did achieve and, because in this school grades are given according to the ability of the child, two of them were on the honor roll. To this group of boys and girls graduation brought a certain dignity and sense of well-being; and somehow one could detect it in their step and on their faces as they walked with their classmates to exercises in their honor.

Wise use of test results will help the administrator to discover the reasons for weaknesses within the school. In one school, too many children were failing in social studies and English. A reading test was administered, and the results showed the reason for the failures. The material in use in these classes was much too difficult. Two things had to be done: work in remedial reading had to be initiated and, until reading skills were improved, simplified material had to be introduced into the classroom.

Test results will help an administrator to compare the achievement of his school with that of other schools in similar neighborhoods, schools which are comparable in size and in which there are groups closely related in ability. This is important in large school districts, or in rural consolidated

schools where a first-year high school class is composed of pupils from a number of junior high schools. Take, for example, a tenth-grade French class made up of people from three or four lower schools. Do they know, relatively speaking, the same amount of French? If not, why not? Is it differences in the ability of the groups represented or difference in the effectiveness of the work done in the several schools? An alert administrator will want to know the answers to these questions and will want them to be based on objective measurements. Is his school, perhaps, guiding boys and girls into a curriculum where they cannot succeed? In one school a boy was failing in Latin. When the teacher consulted his record, she found that his average I.Q. was 80 on a test with a very low ceiling. He should probably never have been admitted to a Latin class in the beginning, but because the school had been careless in helping pupils to choose their curricula, this boy failed and was so discouraged that keeping him in school became a problem.

The school that accepts the philosophy of education based on the thesis that the whole child comes to school will provide opportunities for growth in every phase of living. As has been pointed out before, the teacher, in order to approach her task intelligently, must know her pupils; she must know in what ways she can help groups and individuals live effectively. Measurement has a distinct contribution to make in this respect.

Perhaps the most commonly used test is the intelligence test. Binet and Simon were among the pioneers in this field. They developed a test designed to identify the mentally inferior among French children. Terman later (1916) revised the Binet-Simon test for use with American children. His second revision in cooperation with Maud A. Merrill (1937) is considered standard among individual psychological tests.¹

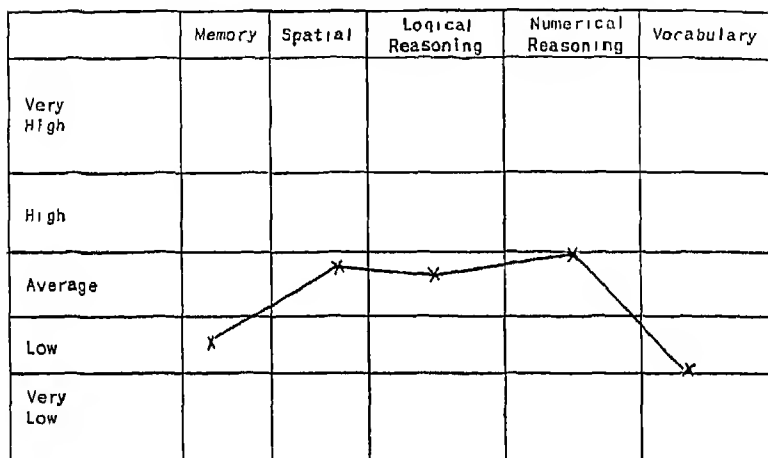
¹ Published by Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston.

While the Binet test is still used to select mentally retarded children, it is also used to measure differences in mental ability among children of average and above-average ability. When intelligence testing took on this broader function, it became necessary to develop a more timesaving device, and group intelligence tests were the result. Most of these group tests have a comparatively high correlation with the Stanford revision of the Binet test, although since they are paper-and-pencil tests they measure ability to learn school subjects rather than practical intelligence. While these tests designed to measure certain mental characteristics of the subject are in most general use, a new type of test has emerged and is being used in many places.

Advocates of the new type of intelligence test believe that there are what they call "primary abilities." These are considered to be basic mental traits that are involved in many different types of test performance. Although some of these tests yield a global score in the form of an I Q., their greatest value seems to be in furnishing a profile which shows the relative value of scores in the different traits tested. The Chicago Tests of Primary Mental Abilities measure seven of these factors or abilities: P, perceptual ability; N, numerical ability, V, verbal ability, S, spatial ability (ability to visualize); M, memory; I, inductive ability (ability to generalize); D, deductive ability (ability to reason). A similar test, the California Test of Mental Maturity, which has been found particularly useful on the junior high school level, measures five factors or "constituents": memory, spatial relationships, logical reasoning, numerical reasoning, and vocabulary. The authors of these tests believe that, in addition to rendering the profile mentioned above, the I.Q. determined by the test has a very high correlation with that of the individual Binet. The profile of a boy's score on the California Test of Mental Maturity is shown below. Although this child's

average I.Q. on several forms of a group test was only 76, it can be readily seen by the profile that when the basic traits are measured, there is more hope for the boy's success than would appear if the I.Q. on the group tests were used alone. This boy, John, was given this test when the teachers reported that he seemed to be brighter than scores on other tests indicated. They said that he used good judg-

John's Graph on the California Test of Mental Maturity



ment in all his relationships, and that he was fairly good in mathematics. His work in the shop was very good, and his school adjustment was satisfactory, in spite of the fact that his grades were low in subjects where reading proficiency was required.

While this type of group test is a new venture in the field of intelligence testing and is thought by some to be too new for acceptance without many misgivings, the authors, who have counseled many children on the basis of results of these tests, feel that they are a step forward toward a more comprehensive and useful instrument for measuring the ability of boys and girls.

In the last analysis, all intelligence tests indicate *differences* in individuals, each of whom becomes the teacher's problem. Her task is to know how the pupils in her class differ and to plan her work so that each individual can be helped. Ability ratings should help her to determine what type and how much work her pupils in a given class can carry. A teacher of English, who had always taught college preparatory students, was suddenly confronted with a group of boys and girls of very limited academic ability. She realized in a short time that the rules of grammar would hold little meaning for them. She studied the records of test results, and then she reorganized her plans for this class. She planned the sessions so that the pupils would learn the things they were sure to use. The class changed from one she had decided to see come into her room to one that was industrious, cooperative, and appreciative.

Moreover, results from these ability tests are very useful in counseling pupils. It was stated earlier in this chapter that a child must always compete with himself. If he is to be emotionally stable as he does this, it is necessary that he accept himself as he is, which means that he must accept his limitations. This is particularly true of the adolescent who is struggling hard to attain selfhood. Ann's experience illustrates this point. In this case, the children came to the teacher to report that money had been taken from Marjorie's wallet. Several girls had been near the desk from which it had disappeared. After school, Ann quietly returned the money to the teacher as the latter had requested. This was the beginning of a series of such experiences. Ann had an excellent record in the school, both in achievement and in citizenship. When the teacher tried to talk with her about this new behavior pattern, Ann cried so bitterly that the matter had to be dropped. At length Ann's mother was invited for a conference. There was no economic reason for

the stealing. Her surprise and chagrin were almost matched by her negative feeling toward the child. Then when the mother spoke of how badly she felt that Ann, who had always been the best of her four children and on whom the family depended to bring home the best report cards, should so "let them down," the teacher recognized the basis of Ann's difficulty. Test results revealed that Ann's ability to do academic work fell in the area of the low average group. In the lower grades the work had been simple, and since Ann was a hard worker, she had been able to maintain high grades. Now the work was more difficult, and Ann was finding it harder to make high averages. She was in a new school, and competition was keener than it had been in the small elementary school she had attended. She was disappointing not only her parents but herself. Because she could no longer offer effective scholastic competition, she took what she was able to take from her competitors.

After several conferences the teacher helped the parents to accept Ann as she was. She shared with them the profile of their daughter's scores in group tests. She discussed with them, also, the positive characteristics possessed by their child, many of which they had not noticed before. In like manner she helped Ann to accept her limitations and pointed out new ways in which she could be a very fine person. Ann responded, her behavior improved, there was no more stealing, and she began to show signs of becoming self-assured again.

Prognostic and aptitude tests are used to measure promise in certain fields. The former are usually thought of in connection with certain subject fields, such as languages and mathematics. Aptitude tests, on the other hand, are intended to measure promise in ability to learn certain skills, such as skills in mechanics or in art and music. Results from such tests are useful in helping pupils to plan courses of study and

to think in terms of careers. There are a few tests of this type which can be used in group situations. The scoring is not always easy, but, where a school is able to manage the time and work required, the use of aptitude tests will be found very effective. The newer type of intelligence tests, which measure several factors, may reduce the necessity for so-called "aptitude tests." Another instrument used more generally as an aid to grade placement and course selection, especially in the early high school years, is the achievement test designed to measure success in school subjects. These are available in so-called "batteries," which provide tests in various subjects. Most of these tests provide grade norms so that a teacher can discover how her pupils compare with those in other places and how individuals in the group compare with their classmates. A careful study of the results of these tests will, in addition, indicate parts of the work that need to be retaught. Particularly important in these batteries are the tests of fundamental skills in reading and mathematics.

Space is given in another unit to the use of the vocational interest inventory. During adolescence, when the child is in the process of building a set of values and emerging as an individual—a time when he is likely to find himself in conflict—interest inventories help him to see himself as a personality with more or less defined interests and to build a life plan.

The test which is perhaps the most difficult to use effectively is the one designed to measure personality adjustment. It is generally agreed that there is no such thing as a normal personality. It is extremely difficult, if not impossible, for a layman to discover when any one tendency is overweighted to the extent that the personality is seriously affected. Some educators question the wisdom of using a personality test, especially with adolescents who at their

best have a tendency to be too introspective. Nevertheless, after these limitations have been recognized, it would seem that an understanding teacher with a good measure of wisdom and a sense of humor will find in results from these tests indications of many ways in which she can help boys and girls to bridge the gap between childhood and adulthood. While it is recognized that no personality test at this time has been shown to have a high degree of validity, the teacher who examines carefully one of these tests taken by an individual pupil should find many clues to an understanding of his personality.

The number of uses to which the school can put test results is legion and depends largely on the initiative and resourcefulness of the school staff. Tests can be used in conducting experiments in new types of work and in evaluating the results of the experiments. They can be used in measuring the effectiveness of certain types of instruction. They can be used in placing children in the most helpful curricula, in counseling, and in curriculum planning. However, it is entirely possible for a school to lose itself in testing to the extent that the testing becomes an end in itself. When this is so, testing serves the school not at all. How, then, can a school plan a testing program that is reasonably adequate and yet not cumbersome?

The first step is to determine objectives. What is the school trying to accomplish? In what ways is it trying to satisfy these objectives? When these objectives have been determined, it is important to ascertain in what areas tests will be useful in planning, in implementing plans, and in measuring results. Unless the school has a great many resources at its command, it will have to limit the number and types of tests chosen to those which are most necessary. Another important factor in this decision is the extent to which school personnel is trained in this field and the

amount of time which can be devoted to the testing program. An inventory of staff members' training and special interests in different phases of the program should prove helpful in determining its scope.

Limits must be recognized, for securing test results that cannot be used is a waste of time, money, and energy. When limits of time, money, and personnel have been established, careful study should be given to the selection of tests. There are many tests available, and here again each school will choose according to its own needs. In selecting tests, there are several important factors to be considered.

First, your school should ask how the norms for a given test were established. Were they determined from results obtained from a population of which your pupils are a part? For example, a group intelligence test for which norms were established from scores made by privileged children in suburban areas would not be useful in testing underprivileged children in some remote sections of the country. Second, does the test measure what you want it to measure? Have the experiences of the children in your school been such that the results of a particular test would yield a true picture of the achievement of your pupils? Third, is the test in accord with the philosophy adopted for your school? Most tests include in the manual of directions information as to how norms were established, the philosophy on which the test was built, and what it purports to measure. In the fourth place, is the test one which lends itself to interpretation by regular school personnel or does it require the service of a specialist? Finally, is it a timed test, and if so is it possible to allot the required time so that the test can be administered without disturbance?

The question of deciding what tests are necessary poses a problem, especially in the smaller schools. If the school must, because of time, money, and personnel, use a very

limited number of tests, what types should be included? A good group intelligence test would be the first choice, because it indicates how much the school has a right to expect in achievement in academic subjects. The next in importance would be a battery of achievement tests; but if a complete battery does not seem advisable, a reading test is probably the most helpful. In choosing achievement tests, it is wise to use different forms of the same test in all grades so that comparison can be made from grade to grade. Third in importance is the interest inventory. In choosing this test, it is important to check the vocabulary used in order to discover whether it will be intelligible to your pupils. If a fourth test is possible, a test of personality is advisable. It should be noted that on many personality tests the scores are less valid after 6 months, since personalities change. The same may be true of interest test scores. The types of tests just listed are intended to help the school to know the child, to measure to some extent his achievement in school subjects, and to help in some measure in counseling him as to future courses of study and careers. The Bibliography at the end of this unit gives a list of tests which are in rather general use at the present time and the names of publishers.

The homeroom seems to be the place that is chosen most often for interpreting to pupils their test scores. Few schools tell pupils or parents what I.Q. is indicated by a given score, because they feel that such information is often misused. However, the scores on all types of tests can be presented in relative form on a profile sheet with scores entered in one of five areas: very high, high, average, low, and very low. When recorded in this fashion, the profile becomes useful as a guide in counseling both parents and children. When achievement tests are given, the classroom teacher has a responsibility in interpreting results to the

pupil. In fact, it is hard to conceive of any person in the school organization who would not at some time find it important to interpret test results to parents and pupils. It is desirable to have one person or a committee from the school staff specialize in this part of the program. It would be their duty to help other members of the staff in a study of the tests that are to be administered, in understanding the results, and in developing techniques for adequate interpretation of results.

In order to select and administer tests and to interpret their results, it is important for the teacher to be familiar with certain terms and their meanings. Some of those most commonly used are given below.

A teacher of French in a high school gave a vocabulary test of 32 words to her tenth-grade class of 30 pupils. The scores made by the pupils were as follows:

Dan	27	Mae	16
Heiman	23	Lana	19
Bill	12	Ida	19
Joe	18	Marguerite	25
Phil	11	Mary	16
Helen	30	Madeline	15
James	18	Louise	21
Eleanor	26	Fred	20
Mabel	22	Irene	12
Bob	23	Verday	29
Barbara	21	Beth	21
Harry	22	John	22
Rose	10	Merle	19
Freda	11	Elizabeth	17
Esther	21	Mildred	20

How would the teacher treat these scores in order to get the greatest possible help from them? First, she would ar-

range the scores in orderly fashion, beginning with the highest score made and ending with the lowest score, as follows.

TABLE 2

Scores (<i>S</i>)	Tabulation	Frequency (<i>f</i>)
30	1	1
29	1	1
28		
27	1	1
26	1	1
25	1	1
24		
23	11	2
22	111	3
21	1111	4
20	11	2
19	111	3
18	11	2
17	1	1
16	11	2
15	1	1
14		
13		
12	11	2
11	11	2
10	1	1
Total number cases (<i>N</i>)		30

At a glance the teacher sees that the *range* of the scores is 10 to 30, inclusive, or 21 points. The next step is to find out how many children made each of these scores: she therefore *tabulates* them. From this tabulation it is a simple matter to fill in the *frequency* (*f*), or the number of children receiving a given score. By adding these, she finds the number of children included in the study, or *N*.

If there had been a large number of children taking the test, she would have arranged the scores in intervals.

TABLE 3

<i>Scores</i>	<i>f</i>
28-30	2
25-27	3
22-24	5
19-21	9
16-18	5
13-15	1
10-12	5
Total	$N = 30$

TABLE 4

Score (<i>S</i>)	Frequency (<i>f</i>)	Frequency \times score (<i>fs</i>)
30	1	30
29	1	29
28		
27	1	27
26	1	26
25	1	25
24		
23	2	46
22	3	66
21	1	21
20	2	40
19	3	57
18	2	36
17	1	17
16	2	32
15	1	15
14		
13		
12	2	24
11	2	22
10	1	10
Total	$N = 30$	$fs = 586$
Mean score	$586/30 = 19.5$, or 20	

The size of the intervals was found by dividing the *range* (21) by the number of intervals desired (7). The tabulation is then performed as in Table 2

One of the things the teacher will want to know is the average score of the group. Of course, that could be found by adding the scores and dividing by the number of cases. This average is one of the measures of central tendency and is spoken of as the *mean*. Since the teacher has the scores tabulated, there is a simpler method of finding the mean.

Taking the frequency distribution in Table 2, the mean can be found by taking the sum of the frequency (f) times the number of scores (S) and dividing by the number of cases (N), as shown in Table 4. For practical purposes the decimal is dropped and the nearest whole number is used.

TABLE 5

<i>Scores</i>	<i>f</i>
30	1
29	1
28	
27	1
26	1
25	1
24	
23	2
22	3
21	4
20	2
19	3
18	2
17	1
16	2
15	1
14	
13	
12	2
11	2
10	1
Total	$\cdot N = 30$

Another measure of central tendency that the teacher will want to find is the *median*, or the point above which and below which 50 per cent of the cases fall. The median is less affected by extreme scores than the mean, and since norms for standardized tests are given as median scores, it is well for the teacher to be conversant with it. Taking the scores of the same class on the French vocabulary test, the median would be computed in the following manner:

Computation of Median

$$\text{For one-half the number of cases, } \frac{N}{2} = 15$$

Beginning at the lowest score, count the number of cases to 15. The fifteenth case would fall in the interval of 20. One case in the interval is needed to make the fifteenth. But there are two cases in the interval. Therefore, the median will be 20 + half the distance through the interval (.5) or 20.5

To find the median when the scores are grouped in intervals, the same method is used. For instance, referring to Table 3, we begin at the bottom and count up 15 scores. This requires 5, 1, and 5 in the lower three intervals, a total of 11. To obtain 15 scores, we must take 4 of those in the next interval (19 to 21), which takes $\frac{4}{6}$ of the distance from 19 to 21 $\frac{4}{6}$ of 3 = $1\frac{2}{3}$. Add $1\frac{2}{3}$ to 19, and we obtain 20 $\frac{2}{3}$, the median when scores are grouped.

Suppose that the teacher had several sections in tenth-grade French taking the same work and that all of them had been given the vocabulary test. By computing the median for each group she could determine how they compared. If this had been a standardized test, the median score for her class could have been compared with the norms given for the test, and she could have compared her class with

other classes of the same type. Also, she could tell at a glance how individual pupils compared with their classmates on this test.

There are times when the teacher needs more detailed information about her pupils. She may want to know in what fourth or quintile (Q) a particular child's score falls. This would be computed in the same manner, dividing the number of scores (N) by 4 rather than by 2 as is done in computing the median. In like manner, the scores may be divided by 5 to find quintile ratings. The use of these in a scattergram is discussed at length in another unit, and it will not be dealt with here. Interpretation of these so-called "point measures," then, is as follows:

Q_1 —Point above which 75 per cent of the scores fall and below which 25 per cent fall

Median—Point above which and below which 50 per cent of the cases fall

Q_3 —Point above which 25 per cent of the cases fall and below which 75 per cent of the cases fall

10th percentile—Point above which 90 per cent and below which 10 per cent of the cases fall

90th percentile—Point above which 10 per cent and below which 90 per cent of the cases fall

While the trend now is to record intelligence test scores either by percentiles, profiles, or relative terms, such as 1,2,3,4,5, in which 5 is high and 3 average, many schools still use the intelligence quotient (I.Q.). To find the I.Q., the mental age (M.A.) is divided by the chronological age (C.A.). Mental age equivalents are usually given for scores made in the group tests. For example, a child makes a score in an intelligence test which indicates a mental age of 13 years, 5 months. His chronological age is 12 years, 1 month. Since $M.A./C.A. = I.Q.$ we have (by months) $161/145 = 1.11$, with the I.Q. expressed as 111.

Ranking

But very often a teacher or counselor wishes to rank her pupils according to scores on a particular test. This is a simple matter, but one that should have our attention here. First, arrange names of pupils according to scores made on the French vocabulary test.

TABLE 6

Pupils	Scores	Temporary ranks	Final ranks	Pupils	Scores	Temporary ranks	Final ranks
Helen	30	30	30	Fred	20	15	15
Verday	29	29	29	Merle	19	11	13
Dan	27	28	28	Laura	19	13	13
Eleanor	26	27	27	Ida	19	12	13
Marguerite	25	26	26	James	18	11	10½
Heiman	23	25	21½	Joe	18	10	10½
Bob	23	21	21½	Elizabeth	17	9	9
John	22	23	22	Mary	16	8	7½
Mabel	22	22	22	Mae	16	7	7½
Harry	22	21	22	Madeline	15	6	6
Beth	21	20	18½	Bill	12	5	4½
Louise	21	19	18½	Irene	12	4	4½
Esther	21	18	18½	Phil	11	3	2½
Barbara	21	17	18½	Freda	11	2	2½
Mildred	20	16	15½	Rose	10	1	1

It is easy to see, when scores are so arranged, which pupils have high scores and which have low. And, if one is asked the rank of a particular pupil in a group of 30—for instance, Eleanor—all he can say is that she ranks third from the top, or, that she ranks twenty-eighth from the bottom. In this case we shall not follow the old ranking scheme, which ranks number 1 the person who has the highest score. Instead we shall rank number 1 the person who has the lowest score and say that Helen, who has the highest score, ranks

30 in a group of 30 pupils. The reason for this method of ranking will be given later.

In the case of Eleanor, the ranking is an easy matter, since only one person has the score 26. However, if one wants to find the rank of Herman, who has a score of 23, the matter is complicated since Bob, also, has that score. It would be manifestly unfair to rank either above the other. Likewise, a difficulty arises when we try to give Beth, Louise, Esther, and Barbara correct rankings, since each has a score of 21. Obviously the thing to do is to begin with the lowest score, give it a rank of 1, and give each score a temporary rank one above the score which precedes it in the listing. Thus the ranks are as shown in the second column of figures. But, since Herman and Bob have identical scores, the only fair thing to do is to give each the average of the two scores assigned to them in the temporary ranking, which is $24\frac{1}{2}$. Also, the average of the four scores assigned to Beth, Louise, Esther, and Barbara is $18\frac{1}{2}$. In like manner we discover the ranks of all others where two or more persons have the same score. The third column of figures, then, shows the final ranks of all pupils.

Percentile Ranking

But if one wants to indicate the rank of a pupil without regard to the number in the class, this simple method of ranking will not suffice. Therefore, we resort to the method of *percentile ranking*, which is commonly used in showing ranks of pupils on standardized tests and in many other situations subject to statistical treatment. The scores used to illustrate simple rank in class will be used to exemplify the method of determining percentile ranks.

One method of finding the percentile rank is to divide 100 by the number of scores. In this case $\frac{100}{30} = 3\frac{1}{3}$, which is known as the "rate." To determine the percentile rank of

each pupil, one need only multiply his actual rank by his rate. For example, the percentile rank of Rose is $3\frac{1}{3}$, of Madeline 20; and of Beth, Louise, Esther, and Barbara $61\frac{2}{3}$. The percentile rank of Helen, then, is $3\frac{1}{3}$ times 30, or 100.

But the common definition of percentile rank implies that a person with a percentile rank of 74 ranks above 74 persons in a hundred and below 26 persons in a hundred. Likewise, a person at the fiftieth percentile ranks above 50 per cent of the persons involved and below 50 per cent of them. Fred and Mildred, who have temporary ranks of 15 and 16 in this group of 30, then, should be at the fiftieth percentile in the series. However, if we multiply $15\frac{1}{2}$ by $3\frac{1}{3}$, we obtain $51\frac{2}{3}$ rather than 50, which according to the definition would be their percentile rank.

This situation has led some statisticians to the conclusion that instead of giving the lowest score a percentile rank equal to the rate, it should be given only half the rate, which would lower each percentile rank by one-half of the rate. If this were done in the present case, Mildred and Fred, who are supposed to be above 50 per cent of the persons concerned and below the other 50 per cent, would have exactly that position.

Otis² suggests the following formula, based on the above concept, for finding the percentile rank when the final simple rank is given: $PR = (R - \frac{1}{2}) \times 1/N \times 100$, in which *PR* stands for *percentile rank*, *R* for *final rank*, and *N* for *total number of cases*. To find the percentile rank of the scores made by Mildred and Fred we merely substitute in the formula

$$\begin{aligned} PR &= (15\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2}) \times \frac{1}{30} \times 100 \\ &= 15 \times \frac{1}{30} \times 100 \\ &= 50 \end{aligned}$$

² Arthur S. Otis, *Statistical Method in Educational Measurement*, World Book Company, Yonkers, N. Y., 1926.

But usually such exactness is unnecessary. Therefore, a good rule for finding approximate percentile rank is to multiply the rate by the final simple rank.

Otis suggests a simple rule for finding the percentile rank of a pupil, which is " . . . find the percentage of the group, not counting himself, whom he exceeds in score."

It is time to explain why we recommend that the lowest score be ranked 1 and the highest 30. This is because final rank is used in connection with the determination of percentile rank, and giving the highest score a rank of 1 would create no end of trouble in this calculation.

Coefficient of Correlation

There is another statistical tool which every teacher should understand—the *coefficient of correlation*. This is a number which indicates a tendency for two different sets of data to be alike or different. For instance, if a pupil has a high score on a scholastic aptitude test, he is likely to have a high score on a test in an academic subject such as English or history or science. However, we cannot gamble that this relationship will hold with any particular student unless we know his record in that subject over a period of time. In a *group* of pupils we can predict that there will be a tendency for a pupil who is high or low in intelligence to have similar scores on a subject matter test.

Coefficients of correlation may range from -1 to $+1$. Perfect negative correlation is indicated by -1 , that is, each pupil who has a high intelligence score has a low score on a subject matter test. If the coefficient of correlation is a -1 , the pupil with the highest intelligence score has the lowest in accomplishment; the one with the next highest, the next lowest, etc., all the way down, and each pupil stands just as far from the top of the list in intelligence as he stands from

the bottom in accomplishment. Likewise, if there were perfect *positive* correlation, the person high in intelligence would always be high in subject matter while the one low in intelligence would be low in accomplishment under the same general conditions as were mentioned in connection with perfect negative correlation. However, this will practically never happen, and the coefficient of correlation can always be assumed to be less than 1, whether the relationship is positive or negative. In social science data there is rarely a perfect negative or positive correlation since human beings merely *tend* to go in one or the other direction. In an exact science we can predict confidently; hence we have *laws*, and do not need to use the coefficient of correlation. For instance, Boyle's law tells us that volume of a gas decreases as pressure increases, or is inversely proportional to pressure. Also, the relation of the radius to the circumference of a circle is always equal to $1/3.1416$. Many other illustrations could be given to emphasize the fact that the coefficient of correlation indicates only a *tendency* for two traits or achievements to be alike or different but never predicts definitely as one expects in the case of a scientific law.

What does a particular coefficient of correlation mean? We can say that if the coefficient is between 0 and $-.20$ or $+.20$, it indicates very little tendency for two sets of data to be unlike or like. However, as the coefficient moves up to $.30$, $.40$, $.50$, $.60$, etc., either negative or positive, the tendency to unlikeness or likeness becomes progressively more significant. Generally the listing below is helpful:

Coefficient	Correlation
0.80 and up	very high
0.50-0.80	substantial
0.30-0.50	some
0.20-0.30	slight
0.00-0.20	practically none

Below are given some data which show how the prediction of different coefficients of correlation are related to chance

Coefficient of correlation	Percentage of increase over chance in predictive efficiency	Chances in 100 of predicting at or above or below average in future behavior
0.00	0.0	50-50
0.20	2.0	50.24-49.75
0.50	13.0	56.5-43.5
0.80	40.0	70-30
0.90	56.0	78-22

Much of the significance of a particular coefficient of correlation depends upon the situation. Thus, we may be able to make subjective evaluations which are no better than chance. A test, however, which provides a coefficient of correlation of .30 may be highly useful since it provides some prediction possibilities, however small, which are better than chance.

A low correlation between two variables derived from a selected population as compared with a high correlation on an unselected population may be equally significant. Thus a correlation of .50 derived from a class of college students or feeble-minded individuals may be just as meaningful as a correlation of .75 derived from an unselected population.

How shall we calculate the coefficient of correlation? The Pearson product-moment method is the most accurate. However, there are two other methods, much simpler, reasonably accurate, and well adapted to use with a small number of scores. One of these is the Spearman foot rule, formula $R = 1 - \frac{6 \sum G}{N^2 - 1}$. R stands for the coefficient of correlation. \sum represents the sum of all the gains in rank of the

second set of scores over the first. N indicates the number of individuals whose scores are being compared.

The other Spearman method, known as the "rank-difference" method, produces a result which is somewhat more accurate than that obtained by the Spearman foot rule discussed above. The formula is $\rho = 1 - \frac{6 \sum D^2}{N(N^2 - 1)}$. Using the scores in French vocabulary as they were ranked above and a set of scores earned by the same pupils on a scholastic aptitude test, we obtain the results given in Table 7.

Adding the squares of D in the last column, we have a total of 961. (In general, a decimal at the end of a whole number is discarded if less than $\frac{1}{2}$. However, a few squares of $\frac{1}{2}$ are used.) Substituting in the formula

$$\rho = 1 - \frac{6 \sum D^2}{N(N^2 - 1)},$$

$$\text{we have } \rho = 1 - \frac{6 \times 961}{30 (899)}$$

$$= 1 - \frac{5,766}{26,970}$$

$$= 1 - .214$$

$$= .786 \text{ or } .79$$

A simple graphic method of indicating the relation between two sets of data is to use the scattergram, shown on page 205. If the scores are closely concentrated on a line from the lower left corner to the upper right corner, a high positive correlation is indicated. If the concentration is from the upper left to the lower right corner, a high negative correlation is indicated. The more the scores are distributed over the entire scattergram, the lower is the coefficient of correlation. While no coefficient is shown here, this can be roughly estimated after some experience.

Sometimes it may seem advisable to have individual tests

TABLE 7

Pupils	French vocabulary scores	French vocabulary rank	Scholastic aptitude scores	Scholastic aptitude rank	Differ- ence in rank	D^2
Helen	30	30	46	30	0	0
Verday	29	29	38	26	3	9
Dan	27	28	24	16	12	144
Eleanor	26	27	39	27	0	0
Marguerite	25	26	40	28	2	4
Herman	23	24½	18	11	13½	182
Bob	23	24½	20	13	11½	132
John	22	22	32	23	1	1
Mabel	22	22	32	23	1	1
Harry	22	22	32	23	1	1
Beth	21	18½	36	25	6½	42
Louise	21	18½	23	15	3½	12
Esther	21	18½	17	10	8½	72
Barbara	21	18½	41	29	10½	110
Mildred	20	15½	21	14	1½	2
Fred	20	15½	25	17	1½	2
Merle	19	13	26	18	5	25
Laura	19	13	30	21	8	64
Ida	19	13	29	20	7	49
James	18	10½	28	19	8½	72
Joe	18	10½	19	12	1½	2
Elizabeth	17	9	16	9	0	0
Mary	16	7½	15	8	½	25
Mae	16	7½	14	7	½	25
Madehne	15	6	3	1	5	25
Bill	12	4½	10	4	½	25
Irene	12	4½	12	6	1½	2
Phil	11	2½	11	5	2½	6
Freda	11	2½	9	3	½	25
Rose	10	1	8	2	1	1

administered to certain children. These may be children who have extremely high scores on a group test but who are failing in their work. Or some of these children may seem to indicate very special abilities so that a test needs to be given to verify the teacher's judgment. Or a child may have a rather low score on a test and yet develop behavior patterns that cannot be understood in the light of the test results already available. Laura was such a child. Her average I.Q. on several forms of a certain group test placed her in the low average group. She was doing very badly in school; she seemed unable to understand many things the teacher said to her, she began to exhibit some very non-social behavior patterns; she feigned pain when the teacher was in the room, but immediately after the teacher stepped into the hall she was quite on the alert and annoyed the children about her. A psychologist was asked to test the child. The Binet was used first and yielded an I.Q. of 80. The psychologist agreed with the teacher that this was not low enough to be provoking all these problems. Accordingly the Wechsler-Bellevue test was administered, and the results on this test gave strong indications of a psychopathic personality. The child was referred for psychiatric care. This difficulty could not have been discovered on a group test. One would like to say that such a case rarely appears, but the testimony of psychologists is that there is an increasing number of seriously disturbed children in our public schools. Discovering them at this age may prevent more serious mental disturbances in later years. A psychologist is not always at hand to test these children for the school because few schools can afford the services of specialists. In many communities, however, resources are available to schools for individual testing and counseling. Many hospitals are opening psychological and psychiatric clinics to which the schools may refer children. In the field of apti-

tude testing, there are probably more possibilities. During the Second World War, the U S Employment Service (U S E S) did a great deal in this field and was generous in sharing its personnel and equipment with the schools. Since this service has been returned to the states, some states are developing special youth counseling services. Many colleges and universities are providing similar services at low cost. The school will do well to utilize whatever opportunities present themselves to supplement the work of the testing program carried on within the school.

The discussion up to this point has dealt with the virtues of a testing program. There are, however, certain pitfalls against which the school should guard. The use of the I.Q. has too often been abused. The school has been too prone to say, "Jim may as well be out on a job. His I.Q. is only 85. He can't learn anything, anyway." But perhaps Jim has a will to learn and perhaps he will use every bit of his ability. Recently a 13-year-old-boy was honored at a public meeting for some fine work he had done. He had written the speech and had received the acclaim of all who knew him. He had been on the honor roll of his school every period since his entrance. He was doing a great deal to support himself. At one time when it was suggested he might be able to sell his wares to his teachers, his reply was to the effect that he wanted to *earn* what he got, and the teachers might buy because he was one of their pupils and had asked them to buy. What many of the people who were praising this young man did not know was that he had an I.Q. of only 85 on a group test. The difference was made up by his untiring effort and his desire to succeed. The I.Q. is only one of the factors to be considered when the teacher is studying a particular child. It must be remembered that the I.Q. is little more than an indication of ability to learn school subjects and that most group tests do not measure

practical intelligence. In one school it was discovered that a boy who had an I.Q. of 72 on a group test had an I.Q. of 97 on the Binet and excellent scores on a number of mechanical aptitude tests.

A second danger lies in the tendency to overemphasize scores on a single item of a test. This is especially true in the interpretation of personality profiles. Care must be exercised to see the whole picture and the relative contribution each factor makes toward it. Concomitant with this is the inclination on the part of teachers to give undue emphasis to the negative aspects of test results. It is hardly possible that a child can erect a building on a foundation he does not have. Each child must build with the tools and materials he possesses. It would seem, then, that counseling techniques which use positive scores as an approach to the problems indicated by the negative ones would prove the most effective in helping the child resolve his difficulties.

Personalities change; so does environment. Because this is true, test results should not be thought of as permanent and unchanging. The adolescent personality, particularly, undergoes a great deal of change, and that quite rapidly. The shy, retiring child may in several months emerge from his retreat into active comradeship with his fellows. The continuity of life and changes that come must be recognized and allowed for in an effort to place the emphasis where it belongs. This requires painstaking care.

Finally, let no school have a limitless faith in tests and measurements. So much of life remains in the area of the intangible that educators can ill afford to ignore that which they cannot fully understand. Pupils are living persons, and as such are in some respects unfathomable. Measurement when properly used will help the school contribute to the growth process of these persons. But there are areas which it cannot at this time penetrate, and because this is

true the school must accept it as making a unique contribution to the educative process and at the same time recognize its limitations.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

- 1 Refer to the scores made in the French vocabulary test, and answer the following questions.
 - a. Find Q_1 and Q_3 . In what quartile does Barbara's score fall? Helen's? Phil's?
 - b. What percentage of the pupils have lower scores than Barbara? What percentage have higher scores than Phil?
 - c. Divide the distribution into quintiles. Place the names of the children in the proper quintile.
 - d. If you were asked to assign "marks" on the basis of this distribution, how would you do it?
 - e. What implications for teaching are found in these scores? What implications for guidance?
2. Would the pupils in a traditional school or the pupils in a progressive school be more likely to make high scores in a standardized achievement test? Why?
- 3 Evaluate your school's testing program, and make suggestions for improving its content and use.

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MARTIN, C. W.: "Are Your Pupils Learning?" *School Executive*, Vol. 62, pp. 38-40, October, 1942. The author gives a shocking example of the unreliability of teachers' judgments as a measure of ability. He challenges administrators to answer certain pertinent questions regarding their own schools and questions their ability to do so unless their answers can be based on the findings of an adequate testing program. Criticism is leveled against nonfailure programs. He advocates that tests be used to guide teaching, direct learning, and aid adjustment.

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SIMS, VERNER M. "Educational Measurement and Evaluation," *Journal of Educational Research*, Vol 38, pp 18-24, September, 1944 The author bases his article on the thesis that measurement which makes a contribution to intelligent evaluation is good measurement. He attempts to justify his position that certain data must be supplied by the measurements program of a school if it is to be helpful in intelligent evaluation.

THOMPSON, HAROLD G., and ARTHUR E. TRAXLER "Are Examinations Necessary?" *Progressive Education*, Vol. 20, pp 300-302, December, 1943 The authors disagree, not so much as to whether examinations are necessary as to what kind of examinations are necessary. Dr. Traxler is opposed to teacher-made, informal examinations and mentions four dangers inherent in this procedure. His coauthor bases his argument on the thesis that life is made up of all kinds of examinations, and he declares that evaluation of progress is essential, and seems to feel that traditional examinations measure this adequately.

WRIGHTSTONE, J. WAYNE: "Can Pupils Help Evaluate Their Growth?" *School Executive*, Vol. 62, p 22, August, 1943 The author would extend the democratic techniques of classroom management to include not only planning units of study but also allowing children to help determine the tests to be used in the enterprise.

Tests of Academic Aptitude

American Council on Education Psychological Examination, published by the Educational Testing Service, New York. There is a form for high school

students and one for college freshmen. This test, which is widely used, yields an L score (language) and a Q score (number) in grades 9 to 12. Time, 59 minutes.

California Test of Mental Maturity, published by the California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, Calif. Forms available on five age levels from kindergarten to adulthood. Measures five basic constituents: memory, spatial relationships, logical reasoning, numerical reasoning, and vocabulary.

Henmon-Nelson Tests of Mental Ability, published by Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, Mass. Grades 7 to 12. Uses school grade norms. Measures the following items: arithmetical reasoning, sentence completion, logical selection, same-opposites, and symbol-digit.

Kuhlman-Anderson Intelligence Tests, published by the Educational Test Bureau, Minneapolis, Minn. Grades 1 to adult, high school, and college. Identifies unusually bright pupils.

Ohio State University Psychological Test, Form 21, published by Science Research Associates, Chicago. Yields a total score, measuring scholastic ability. Subscore measures reading ability.

Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Tests, published by the World Book Company, Yonkers, N.Y. Several forms, grades 1 to 16. Multiple choice questions. Measures in the following areas: analogies, verbal opposites, vocabulary, and disarranged sentences. In addition to being helpful in stimulating interest and activity in study, the author believes it encourages pupils to establish their own methods of self-appraisal.

SRA Tests of Primary Mental Abilities for Ages 11 to 17, published by Science Research Associates, Chicago. A short form of the Chicago Tests of Primary Mental

Abilities. Arranged for simplified scoring. The factors measured are the following: verbal meaning, word fluency, reasoning, number, and space. The memory factor is omitted. Scoring requires 3 minutes and gives five factor scores and a total score. Mental age and percentile norms have been established on a population of junior and senior high school students. Primary ability quotients and a general ability quotient (I.Q.) are also provided. A separate profile and interpretation sheet is available.

Tests of Achievement

Cooperative Achievement Tests, published by Cooperative Test Service, New York. These tests include both subject matter tests (English, foreign language, mathematics, science, and social studies) and survey tests for use with high school and college students. Well constructed and well validated.

Modern School Achievement Tests, published by Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. Measures reading comprehension, reading speed, arithmetic computation, arithmetic reasoning, spelling, health knowledge, language usage, history and civics, geography, and elementary science. Raw scores translated into age and grade norms and can be graphed on profiles.

Progressive Achievement Tests, published by the California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, Calif. Batteries covering basic subjects thoroughly for grades 7 to 9 and 9 to 13. Also primary and intermediate batteries.

Stanford Achievement Tests, 1940 ed. (Junior High School), published by the World Book Company, Yonkers, N. Y. Partial battery tests paragraph meaning, word meaning, language usage, arithmetic reasoning, arithmetic

computation, and spelling. Complete battery tests, also, literature, social studies, and elementary science.

Interest Inventories

Cleeton Vocational Interest Inventory, published by McKnight & McKnight, Bloomington, Ill. For men and women, grade 9 through college. Nine occupational groupings and a section on social adjustment. Scoring is easy.

Kuder Preference Record, published by Science Research Associates, Chicago. Gives a profile of preference scores in nine areas: mechanical, persuasive, computational, scientific, literary, musical, artistic, social service, and clerical. Pupils can score the test.

Strong Vocational Interest Blank (Senior High School), published by Stanford University Press, Stanford University, California. Forms for both men and women. Not recommended for grades below the eleventh. Should be machine scored.

Reading Tests

Cooperative English Test, Test C1: Reading Comprehension, published by the Cooperative Test Service, New York.

Gates Reading Survey Test, published by Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York. A survey test for grades 3 to 10, measuring vocabulary, power or level of comprehension, speed, and accuracy.

Iowa Silent Reading Tests, published by World Book Company, Yonkers, N.Y. There are four forms and nine subtests: rate, comprehension, directed reading, poetry comprehension, word meaning, sentence meaning, paragraph comprehension, and location of information, including use of index and selection of key words.

Adapted for machine scoring. There are also forms for the elementary grades.

Nelson-Denny Reading Test, published by Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, Mass. Scored for vocabulary and understanding of paragraphs. Quick scoring, grades 9 through college

Tiexler Reading Tests, published by Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill. The high school form of this test measures reading rate and story comprehension and main ideas in paragraphs.

Music Aptitude

Seashore Tests of Musical Talent, published by C. H. Stoeltzinger Company, Chicago. Two series of double-faced^{*} phonograph records. They measure sense of pitch, sense of intensity, sense of time, tonal memory, sense of rhythm, and sense of timbre. Series A is for testing of unselected groups, and Series B for musicians or prospective musicians. Many schools use this test for selecting members of the school music organizations. Grades 5 to 16. A widely used test of musical aptitude which to a much greater degree than most aptitude tests probably measures native aptitude.

Mechanical Aptitude—Paper-and-Pencil Type Tests

Bennett Mechanical Comprehension Test, published by the Psychological Corporation, New York. Sixty mechanical situations presented in pictorial form which are to be identified on a multiple-choice basis. For high school pupils and adults.

McQuaine Test for Mechanical Ability, published by the California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, Calif. Measures mechanical ability in terms of ability in tracing, tapping, dotting, copying, location, pursuit, and spatial

perception. One of the few aptitude tests in which *knowing* is minimized and *doing* emphasized.

Revised Minnesota Paper Form Board, published by the Psychological Corporation, New York. Requires visualization and mental manipulation of geometric forms and objects in space.

Mechanical Aptitude—Involving Mechanical Equipment

Minnesota Mechanical Assembly Test, published by the Marietta Apparatus Company, Marietta, Ohio. Examinees, mainly junior high school boys, are required to assemble in each of three boxes 11 mechanical items. A revision of the Stenquist Mechanical Assembly test. Among other manipulative tests are the Minnesota Rate of Manipulation Test and the Minnesota Spatial Relations Test, both distributed by the Psychological Corporation, New York.

Clerical Aptitude

Cardall-Gilbert Test of Clerical Competence, published by Science Research Associates, Chicago. Measures aptitude for various clerical activities. Four parts: number checking, name checking; classification of verbal material; and classification of numerical material. For high school students and adults.

Minnesota Vocational Test for Clerical Workers, published by the Psychological Corporation, New York. Two forms, short and long. The short form consists of the first half of the long form. Test consists of pairs of numbers to be checked if the pairs are exactly alike. Separate forms for men and women.

Personality Inventories

Bell Adjustment Inventory, distributed by the Psychological Corporation, New York. Separates adjustment into

four types: home, health, social, and emotional. Adult forum is scored also for occupational adjustment.

Beimuter Personality Inventory, published by Stanford University Press, Stanford University, California. This inventory explores four areas: neurotic tendencies, self-sufficiency, introversion-extroversion status, and ascendance-submission status. This is one of the most widely used personality scales.

California Test of Personality, published by the California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, Calif. Tests self-adjustment and social adjustment. Also provides for a record of interests and activities.

Vineland Social Maturity Scale, published by Educational Test Bureau, Minneapolis, Minn. The items on this scale are grouped according to difficulty and by year values. There are 117 items in all. The scale yields an S.Q. (social quotient) which the authors feel is very much like the I.Q.

Personality Rating

A fundamental principle of guidance is that wherever possible all evaluation of pupils and their accomplishments should be strictly objective with personal opinion eliminated from the picture. To this end for the past third of a century educators, psychologists, and counselors have been relying to the highest degree possible on standardized objective examinations.

There is one area, however, in which nothing satisfactorily objective has been developed. Reference is here made to the evaluation of personality. While personality tests and inventories have been devised and have been a valuable aid in this area, none of those who developed them lay claim to a high degree of validity or reliability. Personality has been, nevertheless, evaluated from the time men began to criticize their fellows. Its measurement has ranged from the idle gossip of an enemy who knows little about the individual concerned to the modern *anecdotal record* and the carefully prepared and administered *personality rating scale*, both of which are coming to be considered indispensable in a

modern guidance program Only the personality rating scale is considered in this unit.

Rating scales differ from ordinary discussion in that by their use traits instead of the whole personality are considered. It is possible for rating to be done by only one person and still be satisfactory. However, the probabilities are that it will *not* be satisfactory. Just as three of one's friends may give him three different reputations for sociability, so a teacher who has a passion for accuracy will hardly be content to recommend or denounce a pupil on her own evaluation or that of any other person. Out of this thesis comes the fundamental principle that *pupil ratings are not valid unless they are made by a number of persons*. It is generally considered that the minimum number of raters should be three and perhaps the maximum number seven. This is a case in which there is *safety in numbers*, or at least less danger than in a single rating. An erroneous opinion may be balanced by a correct one.

A second principle, always praised but seldom practiced, is that *in the rating of a number of pupils a single trait should be rated at one sitting*. This will remove some of the danger of the "halo" which may be thrown around the pupil because he seems to have a high degree of some particular trait which may be rated just before another one in which he is not at all outstanding. Also, it may obviate some of the halo which a look at the individual as a whole may create. A further danger in rating a pupil on several traits at one time is that the teacher is likely to become tired and drift into a careless attitude toward the rating of some of the traits.

A Scale and a Scheme

Many types of scales have been tried, but the one that seems to be the pattern for most rating scales today is that which was developed by the American Council on Educa-

tion in the late twenties. It involves five descriptions of degrees of a particular trait, the lowest degree appearing at the left end of a horizontal line and the higher ones being located progressively toward the right. An average degree is found at the middle of the line. For instance, the following trait and descriptions of five levels or degrees of its appearance form a part of the American Council on Education Rating Scale.¹ Does he need prodding or does he go ahead

Needs much prodding in ordinary assignments	Needs occasional prodding	Does ordinary assignments of his own accord	Completes suggested supplementary work	Seeks and sets for himself additional tasks
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with his work without being told? The rater, from his observations of the subject, puts a check mark on the horizontal line at the point that indicates his opinion of the degree of the trait possessed by the pupil. Ordinarily the rating scale, as is true of the American Council Rating Scale, contains at least five traits which the rater is expected to consider in his evaluation of the pupil. The scale developed by the National Association of Secondary-school Principals contains seven traits which are built up into a similar scale and several of them are much like those in the American Council Rating Scale.

Traits and trait descriptions used in the scale (shown below) are taken from the Secondary-school Principals' scale. The space at the extreme left designated "No opportunity to observe" is given a scale value of 0, and the trait degrees at the right, values of 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 in order.

When a group of pupils is to be rated on a single trait, a slip of paper containing the trait and descriptions of degrees of it is laid on the table. Below it is a list of names of pupils who have been numbered and at the right of this a narrow

¹ A later edition of the scale does not use the horizontal line but arranges the traits vertically, the lowest degree appearing at the bottom. For our purposes, however, the horizontal scale is preferable and differs hardly any from the later edition.

RATING SCALE

* TRAIT 1 SERIOUSNESS OF PURPOSE

0	1	2	3	4	5
No opportunity to observe	Purposeless	Vacillating	Potential	Limited	Purposeful

TRAIT 2 INDUSTRY

0	1	2	3	4	5
No opportunity to observe	Seldom works even under pressure	Needs constant pressure	Needs occasional prodding	Prepares assigned work	Seeks additional work

TRAIT 3 INITIATIVE

0	1	2	3	4	5
No opportunity to observe	Seldom initiates	Conforms	Varies with conditions	Self reliant	Actively creative

TRAIT 4 INFLUENCE

0	1	2	3	4	5
No opportunity to observe	Passive	Retiring but co-operative	Varying	Wholesome	Unusually wholesome

TRAIT 5 CONCERN FOR OTHERS

0	1	2	3	4	5
No opportunity to observe	Anti social	Indifferent	Self centered	Somewhat socially concerned	Deeply and generally concerned

TRAIT 6 RESPONSIBILITY

0	1	2	3	4	5
No opportunity to observe	Unreliable	Somewhat dependable	Usually dependable	Conscientious	Assumes much responsibility

TRAIT 7 EMOTIONAL STABILITY

0	1a	2a	3	4	5
No opportunity to observe	Hyperemotional	Excitable	Usually well balanced	Well balanced	Exceptionally stable
	1b	2b			
	Apathetic	Unresponsive			

* The traits and their degree descriptions are taken by permission, from the scale developed by the National Association of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association

strip of paper on which are placed numbers of the pupils and numbers indicating pupils' ratings on the trait described.

TRAIT 3 INITIATIVE

0	1	2	3	4	5
No opportunity to observe	Seldom initiates	Conforms	Varies with conditions	Self reliant	Actively creative

Pupil Names
and Numbers

- 1 Mary A
2. James B
3. Arthur C
- 4 Lucy D.
- 5 Carrie E.
- 6 Robert F.
- 7 Peggy G.
- etc.

Pupil	Rating
1	4
2	3
3	5
4	2
5	4
6	5
7	4
etc.	

After three to seven teachers (or any larger number chosen) have rated a pupil, the sheets are handed to his homeroom teacher, who transfers the numerical ratings to the *Indi-*

vidual Cumulative Summary Rating Sheet, which contains the entire scale and spaces for recording summaries of the ratings

INDIVIDUAL CUMULATIVE SUMMARY RATING SHEET

(To be filed in cumulative folder)

Pupil's Name _____

School or Schools _____

SCHOOL YEAR	CUMULATIVE RATINGS						
	Grade 19	Grade 19	Grade 19	Grade 19	Grade 19	Grade 19	Grade 19
	Num R	Num R	Num R	Num R	Num R	Num R	Num R
Trait 1- Seriousness of Purpose	3½						
Trait 2- Industry	4½						
Trait 3 Initiative	3						
Trait 4 Influence	4						
Trait 5 Concern for Others	3½						
Trait 6 Responsibility	3½						
Trait 7 Emotional Stability	2b						
YEARLY TOTALS	3½						

"Note: The lowest average score that any pupil who has been rated by a number of teachers may have is 1, the highest, 6."

This sheet contains spaces for recording the ratings for a maximum of 7 years and shows the cumulative record of numerical ratings of the pupil for that number of years or for any lesser period.

Method of Calculating Scores for the Summary Rating Sheet

Each of from three to seven teachers has rated a pupil on a particular trait—let us say, Trait 6. For example, Pupil X has been rated on Trait 6 by five teachers as follows.

TRAIT 6. RESPONSIBILITY

0	1	2 ✓	3 ✓	4 ✓	5 ✓
No opportunity to observe	Unreliable	Somewhat dependable	Usually dependable	Conscientious	Assumes much responsibility

It will be observed that one teacher's rating has a value of 2, two teachers' ratings have values of 3, one of 4, and the other of 5. The average rating of this pupil is found by

totaling these five ratings and dividing by 5, the number of ratings. The result is 3%, which is the rating on that trait for that year. Ratings on the remaining six traits are obtained by the same method. After the seven traits have been rated and summarized, the individual trait ratings may be added for the year's total. However, this is not a significant figure, the individual trait totals being much more meaningful over a period of years. The above total on Trait 6 and hypothetical ratings for the remaining traits are found on the sample summary rating sheet. If a rating on Trait 7 is 1 or 2, the letter *a* or *b* should be placed in the proper space on the cumulative summary rating sheet to indicate the general type of emotional instability present.

In some cases where a teacher is asked to rate a pupil, she may not have had opportunity to observe him. If a teacher who is not well acquainted with a pupil were to rate him, she would be doing him a grave injustice. Therefore, at the left end of each horizontal rating line there is a space in which the teacher may indicate that she has not had opportunity to observe this pupil. This rating has a value of 0. Whenever a teacher checks the zero space (no opportunity to observe), the number divided into the total trait values should be reduced by 1, or another teacher should be asked to rate the pupil on that trait. In other words, only those checks are considered which are in spaces with values of 1 or more.

A feature of the later edition of the American Council on Education Rating Scale is a space for the rater to record, in connection with the rating of each trait, some instances on which her judgment is based. This feature is not included in the rating scale presented here, since such instances are similar to the anecdotal record to be considered in a later unit.

It is not to be expected that teachers can rate effectively

without previous careful consideration of the problem of rating. In the first place, they must be "sold" on the values of this technique. No teacher who goes into the project halfheartedly is likely to contribute materially to the guidance program. No teacher who fails to discriminate between significant and meaningless behavior, who has not learned to observe in a reasonably objective manner, and who cannot distinguish between facts and opinions should have a place in the rating program.

But there is no valid reason why any teacher of good will may not be properly trained for this significant service. A rating program is as important as any other phase of school activities. Therefore, nothing should be done which will limit its effectiveness. One meeting of the teachers before the rating is to be done, in order that the principal may give them the dates and a copy of the scale and show them the mechanical details of the job, will be entirely ineffective training. The teachers must be led to understand fully just *why* the rating is to be done, why it is necessary for them to do it, of what successful rating consists, and when it is successfully done. But after all this they must be shown by actual experience how the ratings by various teachers of the same pupil may differ, why they differ, how teachers may overcome such wide variations, how they may consistently avoid unreliability in their own ratings, and how the latter can be used as a basis for guidance. Such training cannot be done except with actual cases, enough of them to provide the proper experience. This experience with the cases rated and the theory involved should produce a number of fundamental principles that will guide teachers in their work.

One final caution should be given. Teachers should not discuss their ratings with other teachers until all the ratings are in. To do so may affect the spontaneous ratings of some and vitiate the entire process.

When and how often the ratings should take place is important. Too many schools postpone the rating until the senior year or the last year the pupil is in school. This is analogous to the unfortunate policy of giving an intelligence test the last year in high school so that the school may make a respectable showing with colleges and employers.

Rating, if it is to be done, should begin the first year a pupil is in the secondary school (since this discussion relates only to secondary school pupils) and should take place yearly during his remaining school life. Thus the ratings for a number of years can be compared and some idea of the pupil's progress in personality development can be obtained. Probably the best time for rating is toward the end of the first semester, after new pupils have become known to the teachers, and early enough so that the ratings may be of service in the pupil's guidance for the remainder of the year. The principal should set, in consultation with the teachers, a definite time for the beginning of the rating and for the final summary sheets to be completed. Summary rating sheets should be filed in the pupils' cumulative folders.

While the principal aim in this unit is to describe a technique of personality rating, it may not be out of place to suggest some possible uses for the findings. Certainly a study of ratings of a pupil should bring out needs and encourage teachers to plan for meeting them. A study of ratings of a group of pupils may indicate needs which can be met through group counseling. The teacher who rates a pupil or a group should study the findings as a challenge to more effective guidance.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Lillian E. Davis of Williamsport, Pa., performed an experiment in the training of teachers for rating pupils' per-

sonality traits. Copies of this article, describing one of the few experiments of this type ever carried out, will be sent without cost to persons writing the Department of Education, Bucknell University, Lewisburg, Pa.

2. The rating scale accompanying the articulation form developed by the National Association of Secondary-school Principals for transfer of pupils to college is reproduced in this unit. Study of the ratings sent to one college from a large number of secondary schools shows that the *halo* seems to be operative in the ratings. Explain this phenomenon
3. Assume that your school has adopted the rating *scheme* recommended here. How do you suggest that teachers prepare for rating their pupils, assuming that teachers must *know* their pupils if they are to rate them successfully.
4. James Shunk was in trouble, and his parents were coming to see the homeroom teacher. Before they arrived, his homeroom teacher went through his cumulative folder and examined, along with other items, his cumulative rating sheet. Here she found what the composite opinions of several teachers were over the past 3 years. While this did not solve the problem, it did relieve her of depending on one person's opinion. Should these ratings be given to the parents?
5. An interesting experiment in your school would be for each teacher to select a certain number of personality traits (from 5 to 10), all teachers choosing the same number. No teacher should divulge the traits she had chosen. The choices should be tabulated and a tentative rating scale prepared consisting of those traits which appear most frequently. A worth-while discussion could be based on comparison of this list of traits with some of the well-known lists such as those in the scales of the Ameri-

can Council on Education or the Secondary-school Principals.

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NORRIS, RUTH. "Personality Ratings of High School Pupils in Relation to Their Success in School," *School Review*, Vol. 52, pp. 33-40, January, 1944. Records of 480 junior high sophomores and of 292 high school seniors in the Kansas City schools were studied in this report. Brief summary of their personality ratings in relation to their academic success is given. A number of tables are pictured and a personality growth card is presented with a plan for its use.

SWINEFORD, FRANCES: "Analysis of a Personality Trait," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, Vol. 32, pp. 438-444, September, 1941. Four tests used to measure the tendency to gamble on guessed responses was given to 344 ninth-grade pupils. Five conclusions and inferences are reported by the author.

TSCHECHELIN, M. A.: "Twenty-two Trait Personality Rating Scale," *Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 18, pp. 3-8, October, 1944. There are a number of instruments purporting to measure personality at adult level, only a few attempt to do so at child level. The author here presents findings on using this Twenty-two Trait Personality Rating Scale to measure virtually the same traits at child level as Kelly uses in his Thirty-six Trait Personality Rating Scale for adults.

TSCHECHTELIN, M. A. "Teachers Rate Their Pupils," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 31, pp. 22-26, January, 1945. The author reports on a study of the highly significant question of the attitude of the teacher toward each pupil in the class. All types of elementary schools, large and small, urban and rural, public and private, are used in a study made throughout the state of Indiana. The Twenty-two Trait Personality Rating Scale was used and each child was rated by four teachers. A socially significant finding stands out. Girls are favored in all but 13 of the 132 cases reviewed. Why?

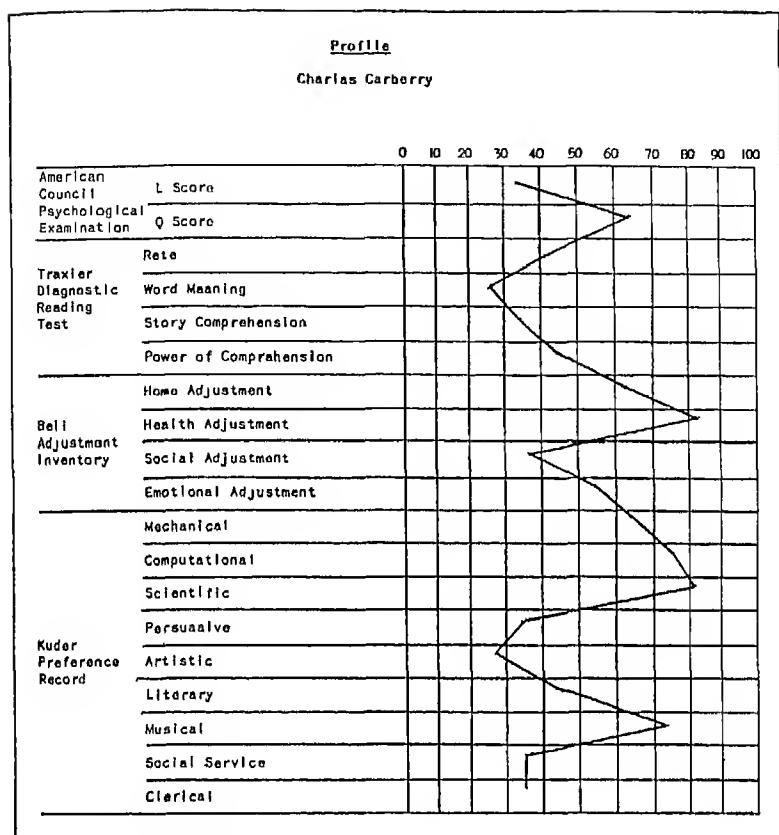
The Guidance Clinic

Charles Carberry was in trouble again. He was in the middle of the first semester of his sophomore year in high school. During his freshman year he had been a frequent visitor at the principal's office, and his grades were mediocre. One teacher had called him a dumbbell and refused to talk to him after class. Another had dismissed him from class for a week without notifying the principal. Of course, when the attendance slips came in, his absence was discovered, and he was allowed to sit with a study group in the assembly hall. He was a good athlete, but had not been allowed to play football this fall because of his marks. Now he was in the principal's office again. But this was a new principal who had just received his master's degree with a major in personnel work. Although he did not attempt to introduce a complete guidance program, he did see that every pupil in the school had a group intelligence test and that a cumulative folder was prepared to hold all the records of every pupil.

Mr. Scykes, the new principal, pulled Charles's folder out of the files and observed his intelligence score and the ac-

companying mental age. Then without comment he replaced the folder and asked him to tell him a little about himself. Charles was astonished that he was not "bawled out" and told to go back and apologize to someone. But he soon recovered, and asked the principal what he would like to hear about. The reply was, "Anything, but you might like to tell me about your experiences in athletics." Charles related them in some detail and then, on encouragement by the principal, told briefly about his home, his work after school and in the summer, his summer camping experiences, his extracurricular interests, Sunday school, and work with the Boy Scouts. At the close of the conference, Mr. Scykes asked Charles if he could find time after school or in vacant periods to take a few tests. The reply was in the affirmative, and the first test appointment was made. The tests were the Kuder Preference Record, the Bell Adjustment Inventory, and the Triaxler Diagnostic Reading Test. The results of all these tests, including the American Council Psychological Examination (A.C.E. test), are shown on the profile presented here.

When he had completed the profile, he called a meeting in his office. Those present were Charles's homeroom teacher, the physical education teacher and football coach, the counselor, and the teacher who was supposed to know the most about mental measurement. The profile was typed, and a carbon copy was handed to each member of this conference group, or "guidance clinic." Before the meeting, all the persons invited were requested to obtain any important facts (not opinions) that they could. Thus, when they met, they were in a position to consider the case intelligently. Principal Scykes asked the homeroom teacher to conduct the clinic. She began by presenting the profile and discussing it with the group, merely explaining the meaning and answering questions from the members of the clinic.



This was the first clinic held in this school. No such picture of any pupil had been presented to a group of teachers, and the interest was intense. Certain teachers were considerably surprised to learn that Charles's Q score on the American Council Psychological Examination was so high and his L score was so low. A discussion of the meaning of these two scores followed, including the statement that apparently Charles was much more capable in work involving numbers than in work where languages and literature were prominent. Going down the profile they found that his knowledge of word meanings was at about the twenty-fifth

percentile, while on the Kuder Preference Record he stood at about the seventy-fifth percentile in the computational area and at the eighty-fourth percentile in interest in things scientific. Also, his interest in music was sufficiently high to provide him with an avocational outlet. Indeed, it was brought out that he sang in the glee club and was trying to get an instrument so that he could play in the band.

His highest percentile rank was in health adjustment on the Bell Adjustment Inventory. This may have accounted for his interest in athletics and his disappointment that he was unable to play on the school football team.

A further examination of the profile brought out the specific weaknesses that seemed to be indicated. He stood at the thirty-fourth percentile on the L score on the A C E test, at the twenty-fourth in word meaning on the Triaxler Diagnostic Reading Test, and no higher than the forty-fourth percentile on any phase of this field. Going down to the Bell Adjustment Inventory again, it was noted that while he was high in home adjustment he stood at the thirty-fifth percentile in social adjustment, and finally they observed that on the Kuder Preference Record he stood considerably below the median in persuasive, artistic, and literary areas.

By this time, the clinic had concluded that it had possession of some extremely valuable information. Charles was considerably above average in things mathematical and scientific. This was evident from his profile and from his teachers' comments. He apparently had a reasonably happy home life and enjoyed vigorous health, and it was common knowledge that he was a fine athlete when he was permitted to play. Finally, he had a hobby that afforded him a good deal of pleasure.

The main trouble seemed to be in English and social studies. He was poor in these subjects, and he did not try to conceal his dislike for them. Most of his difficulties with

classroom teachers had been in these fields. The clinic arrived at two conclusions. (1) that for the time being not so much should be expected from him in these fields, and (2) that a remedial program in reading and language usage should be started immediately with the idea of improving his reading and oral and written speech, especially through enlargement of his vocabulary, and with the further purpose of getting him interested in reading.

A number of additional problems had been observed by certain teachers, one of these being Charles's apparent lack of knowledge of some of the amenities of social living. While the group felt that a slow and careful beginning was desirable, arrangements were made to try to get Charles started on a modest program of social activity. It was agreed that this effort should be so engineered that he would be unconscious of it.

Before the clinic finally broke up after a 60-minute session, the suggestion was made that others be held to consider problems which some of those present named. Principal Scykes went home with the feeling that he had had a good day.

For obvious reasons the in-school guidance clinic has been discussed as a valuable guidance technique. This emphasis is not given with the idea of minimizing the importance of the outstanding child-guidance clinics all over the country. These organizations employ psychiatrists, psychiatric social workers, doctors, psychologists, and specialists of whatever kinds are needed to assist in the solution of child-guidance problems. Their service is notable and should be extended as rapidly as possible.

There are guidance authorities who believe that no guidance clinics not manned by experts should attempt to serve pupils. The authors' attitude is that since not all ailing persons of the nearly one hundred and fifty million people

in this country can be treated in a clinic such as Mayo's but must be served by whatever medical service is available, so the millions of public school pupils out of reach of high-grade child-guidance clinics must be treated by the next best plan. Teachers are reminded that wherever desirable and possible outside experts should be brought to the school guidance clinic. These may be county psychologists and psychiatrists, or those connected with universities or government institutions, or doctors, dentists, psychiatric social workers, vocational guidance experts, placement workers, and other specialists. The successful personnel worker must reach out for every type of competent help it is possible for him to obtain.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

- 1 Visit, if possible, some well-established child-guidance clinic, and observe procedures
- 2 If the guidance clinic has not yet been established in your school, invite four or five alert teachers to sit down at lunch with you to discuss some problem pupil whom all know. Do not use any data from the pupil's folder.
 - a. List questions, to answer which the folder is necessary.
 - b. Ask the same teachers to consider with you another pupil with all data available
- 3 Visit a school where all serious discipline cases are handled by a clinic. Discuss with the principal his evaluation of this technique of problem solution.
4. As a homeroom teacher, you probably have one or more pupils presenting serious problems. Discuss with your principal the clinic idea, and ask for a clinic to consider problems posed by one of these pupils.

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- DRISCOLL, G. P. "Mental Health of Children—Whose Responsibility?" *Teachers College Record*, Vol 46, pp. 501-507, May, 1945. While this article does not deal with a guidance clinic for children, it points directly to the need of one. The author states the imperative need for the conservation of a child's mental as well as his physical health, gives some facts to emphasize the seriousness of the situation, some evidences of maladjustment, some requirements for the maintenance of mental health, and concludes with an analysis of who in the school and community is responsible for the mental health of the children.
- ROLAND, MARY C.: "Help for Problem Children," *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 36, pp 25-27, November, 1945. The author, member of a child-guidance clinic, maintains that the problems of children in school and of those who come to a guidance clinic are enough alike so that the orientation of both teacher and clinician should be basically the same. If the teacher is able to take the clinical point of view, a number of ways are discussed in which she can help the child, as the school provides an "al-

most unparalleled situation for seeing children as they are."

STEVENS, G. D. "Help for the Maladjusted," *School Executive*, Vol. 65, pp. 60-61, November, 1945. When maladjustments are based on physical defects, poor study habits, or personality problems, the school can do much to solve the difficulty. When the maladjustments are based on family complications or economic struggle or some such deeply rooted problem requiring extensive and intensive case work, it is the duty of the school, says the author, to utilize the resources of the community. Listing such organizations as family case-work agencies, child-guidance clinics and health departments, and other agencies equipped to handle such problems is a first step. Planning procedures to facilitate efficient referral is the second. The school should serve as liaison between the family and the agency and should maintain contact with both. A number of case histories of problems solved by community agencies are cited.

WHITEHEAD, C. L. "Parent-Juvenile Councils Prove Valuable," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, Vol. 20, pp. 344-345, October, 1945. So excellent is the program outlined in this brief article it is a temptation to quote it *in toto*. The author, a practicing attorney whose avocation is child welfare work, served as chairman of the Altadena Juvenile Council Plan and is the author of the Manual of Procedure he describes here. He believes the question of how to handle problem children can be answered in large part by parent-juvenile councils acting with teachers. Reached at an early stage, the tendency toward delinquency can be nipped in the bud. The Altadena Council not only handled all cases referred by the schools but also took care of 64

cases referred by the county sheriff's office. Organization and procedures of other councils are described.

WHITMAN, S. "Child Guidance Clinic," *Hygeia*, Vol 23, pp 664-665, September, 1945. A poignant case study which shows that there is always a reason for "problem behavior" and that often it takes expert aid to find the cause and to work out the solution.

Individual Counseling

"Individual counseling" is a term which refers to any situation in which a teacher (or counselor) and a single pupil sit down and consider problems which concern the pupil. It is not just any friendly chat between two persons who happen to meet. It differs from this in that it has a definite purpose, and the teacher always keeps this purpose in mind even though she may be approaching the pupil's problem in a roundabout way. A counseling situation is set up whenever a teacher, for any reason or under any circumstances, meets a pupil for the purpose of helping him to solve a problem of which he may or may not be conscious.

The Counseling Interview

In some schools, homeroom teachers are required to have a certain number of individual conferences with each pupil in the room. In other schools, they are required only to hold conferences with pupils who present some particular difficulty. It is suggested here that every homeroom teacher hold at least one individual conference each semester with each homeroom pupil, regardless of his evident problems, and

perhaps a number of conferences with those who present particular difficulties. These are in addition to the conferences which are held at the request of the pupils. The classroom teacher will not be expected to hold interviews with every pupil but only with those who come for help and those whom she singles out as needing attention. The problems the homeroom teacher considers will cover a wide range, but the classroom teacher will be mainly concerned, although not always, with academic problems and those related to class morale. The important thing is that both the homeroom teacher and the classroom teacher accept individual counseling as an indispensable technique of their jobs.

What are some of the problems which will present counseling opportunities? A few are choice of an occupation, choice of curricula and courses, failures or difficulties in courses, choice of extracurricular activities, financial problems, social problems, problems of personal adjustment, and problems of health. These problems, of course, may be broken down into dozens of subproblems which will be obvious to the alert teacher.

It is easy to tell the teacher that she should hold conferences with her pupils. It is another matter to tell her how to handle these interviews. The technique of the counseling interview has been pretty well standardized. How to begin it will depend on whether it is initiated by the pupil or by the teacher. It is one thing to answer a pupil's questions when he wants help, and it is another to lead up to a problem for which he has been summoned, whether or not he is aware of the problem. It is generally agreed that rapport is the big problem in the latter case. How to obtain that rapport, or feeling of friendliness and comfortableness, will now be considered.

The wise teacher will not open the interview with such a shock as was precipitated by one teacher who, when a pupil

came to her, said, "Aha, you've been tattling again." That teacher had no desuabie influence on the pupil. It cannot be said that she did not have an undesuabie influence. If she had been wise, she would have completely concealed any animosity she may have felt toward that pupil and would have heard him out to the end. As it was, the interview ended right there. This was an ideal opportunity for service in an individual interview. The pupil wanted to talk. He had something to talk about, and he wanted the teacher's help. The wise teacher, realizing how seldom this happens, would have led the boy on to present his problem and, even if he *were* inclined to "tattle," would have had an excellent opportunity to lead him to see how undesuabie it was. Getting a pupil to talk in an interview is frequently difficult. Here this difficulty was entirely obviated. Such a situation puts the teacher into her very best role, that of a giver of something desired. The problem of building up a feeling of rapport and in addition asking the proper questions and leading the pupil to see the thing she desires him to see is a different matter.

Assume that the teacher feels that for some good reason she should have a talk with John Smith. It happens that John is not getting along well in his schoolwork. His main difficulty seems to be that he has been going with undesirable company for some time, and the teacher has just discovered this. Her problem is to get John to see his situation and where it will probably lead. John, on the other hand, has the adolescent boy's supersensitiveness about "squealing" on his companions. This means that the teacher must build up in John a feeling of complete confidence in her before broaching the subject at hand. She will greet him cordially, ask him to have the most comfortable seat available, and will open the conversation with as pleasant a subject as is possible, although it may have nothing to do with the

reason for inviting the boy to this interview. The reason for this apparent subterfuge is that the teacher wants John to have an entirely friendly attitude toward her. She knows that if he suspects her of being unfriendly to him she will get nowhere with the interview. In some cases, teachers have taken pupils for walks in the woods or to have ice cream in order to establish friendly relations so that they might begin thinking together. In many cases, the first interview should not deal at all with the problem. It should be entirely given over to the establishment of morale. Freud suggests that the teacher *do* something for the pupil. Others have found that allowing the pupil to do some service for the teacher is even more effective. The ability of the teacher to laugh with the pupil, not *at* him, helps.

The alert teacher will have studied the pupil's record carefully before the interview and will know something of his likes and dislikes, his abilities and weaknesses, his associates, and the type of home from which he comes. She will know whether the discipline method at home is repressive or the opposite. She will attempt to use measures that at least have not proved futile in other comparable situations. She will try to know how he reacts to situations involving thwartings and how he behaves when he is winning. This may be learned by observing him in contests with other pupils. She will search carefully for desirable traits which may be used for favorable comment when the problem is broached. In fact, she should endeavor to avoid unfavorable comment wherever possible. Benjamin Franklin built up early in life the habit of never directly contradicting anyone. He would say, "Yes, there are many factors definitely in favor of your contention. On the other hand, there are those who claim that the facts are different. Now let us examine the problem." But after this diplomatic approach and when the point had been proved to his entire satisfaction, he rarely

stated the conclusion. So the counselor need not and should not "rub in" the conclusions that she has arrived at and that the pupil has probably agreed to.

In one other case—that in which the teacher must interview every pupil, regardless of problems—the approach will be a bit different. Here the teacher will take the attitude that this interview is something required of everyone and that she just wants to chat informally with the pupil in meeting the requirement. After establishing rapport, she will ask the pupil if he has any problems that are bothering him. She will not insist that every pupil have problems. She will probably ask him questions on a number of fronts: extra-curricular activities, scholastic success, work engaged in outside of school, his community activities, summer recreation or work activities, special interests and talents, etc. This interview should help to determine whether future conferences should be held and to give the teacher a hint as to how to approach the assignment.

A type of counseling which is usually discussed in any modern consideration of counseling is that emphasized by Carl R. Rogers and known as "nondirective counseling." This method was tried out extensively in the Second World War and was found rather effective, particularly in situations in which the counselor had not had extended training. In this type of situation the counselor leads the counselee to discuss his problem as freely as possible and merely lays a smooth path, as it were, over which the counselee may travel to a degree of security through expressing his feelings. When it is realized that 6¼ per cent of all men called for service in the armed forces in 1942–1943 were rejected because of emotional instability, it can be readily seen that a favorable opportunity for self-expression, even for the many who were not unstable and who were not rejected, would have been extremely helpful.

A listing of the counseling rules in the Western Electric Company, where nondirective counseling is practiced, will give a clear picture of this technique.

1. The interviewer should listen to the speaker in a patient and friendly, but intelligently critical, manner.
2. The interviewer should not display any kind of authority.
3. The interviewer should not give advice or moral admonition.
4. The interviewer should not argue with the speaker.
5. The interviewer should talk or ask questions only under certain conditions.
 - a. To help the person talk.
 - b. To relieve any fears or anxieties on the part of the speaker which may be affecting his relation to the interviewer.
 - c. To praise the interviewee for reporting his thoughts accurately.
 - d. To veer the discussion to some topic which has been omitted or neglected.
 - e. To discuss implicit assumptions if this is advisable.

After what has just been said, it is not difficult to arrive at a description of the person who will do the best counseling. Since it is assumed here that every teacher is a counselor, the picture will be a very modest one. The counselor must like people, particularly children, and must be constantly thinking more about the comfort and happiness of others than of herself. She must be reasonably calm and able to keep still while the other fellow talks. She knows that any successful counselor must be able to listen much and talk little. She has to have the patience of Job and must be able to keep a calm exterior no matter how she feels *internally*. A pupil or even a parent may come to her very angry. Then, if ever, she must keep her composure. Two excited people are an absolute impossibility if one is a real counselor.

She will not attach values to anything a pupil has done.

She is "shockproof" and does not lift an eyelid at the most hair-raising story. To all appearances, it is an everyday matter. She praises the pupil whenever possible. She never threatens and is never excessively sympathetic. She allows the pupil to arrive at his own conclusions and whenever desirable sees that a further appointment is arranged for.

Under what conditions is a counseling interview desirable? A few problems are listed below.

1. Misconduct
2. Poor school work in general
3. Difficulties with particular subjects
4. Change of curriculum
5. Health handicaps
6. Ambitions above a pupil's ability
7. Ambitions below a pupil's ability
8. Special aptitudes not being utilized
9. Intellectual ability not being utilized
10. Home difficulties affecting a pupil's work
11. Companions adversely affecting a pupil
12. Wasting leisure time
13. Inability to get along with others
14. Choosing a life work
15. Frustrations
16. Self-consciousness
17. Nonacceptance by others

Counseling Suggestions

Some principles of counseling which every teacher-counselor will find helpful are given below. While they are intended principally for professional counselors who have more time for counseling than the classroom teacher usually has, they are fundamental and should be examined by a teacher for the purpose of orienting herself in the art.

1. Individual counseling involves two people, one who has a problem which should be solved, and another who is in a position to assist in its solution
2. The counseling interview is devoted to (a) obtaining information, (b) giving information, and (c) changing attitudes and behavior.
3. The counselor should call the counsellee by name when welcoming him to the interview
4. Counseling should begin with the establishment of rapport, that is, the counsellee must feel comfortable
5. The counselor must himself be at ease if he expects the counsellee to be at ease.
6. Whenever possible, a case should be studied carefully by the counselor before the interview
7. The counsellee is helped by the knowledge that the counselor knows his problem. This makes it easier for him to "open up."
8. Fears may prevent a counsellee from "opening up."
9. The teacher who desires to be an effective counselor should take special training
10. The counselor must have a certain insight which shows him how to begin and how to end an interview
11. The counsellee may realize that something is wrong but may not recognize his problem
12. The counselor should help the counsellee to locate and define his problem.
13. The counsellee must wish to solve his problem
14. The counselor should be an expert listener and should emphasize this in his technique
15. The counselor should avoid asking direct questions until the counsellee is ready to volunteer the information
16. The counselor should confine his remarks chiefly to the questions which will enable the counsellee to see his problem clearly and to formulate plans for its solution.
17. A maximum of leadership treatment and a minimum of executive treatment are desirable.

18. It is almost always possible for a counselor to wait till the facts are in before endeavoring to bring the counselee to a decision. Occasionally this may not be true.
19. The counselee must be provided with outlets—educational, vocational, avocational, and correctional.
20. The counselee must be made acquainted with many sources of aid.
21. The counselee must be willing to use such sources of aid as are provided.
22. Usually it is unwise to try to settle a problem in one interview.
23. The counselor should always keep a pad on the table on which he may write notes if he desires.
24. Every counselor should take time to write up a case fully after each interview. In fact, interview time should include this.
25. The counselor should usually take time to review a case and consult with other persons before dispensing advice.
26. A definite future appointment is usually desirable.
27. The counselor must know how to induce the counselee to ask for another interview if such is needed.
28. If a counselee does not return when arranged for, a card should be sent inviting him to come on a definite date.
29. The staff clinic is desirable for difficult cases.
30. A counselor should seldom consider a case *closed*, for a year or two later the counselee may return. Then a review of the full notes is desirable.
31. The counselor should study his own habits and peculiarities to see that they do not have an unfortunate effect on the counselee.
32. At times the counselor should dictate a complete statement of the case after the interview.
33. The counselor should study his own voice through recording, in order that he may be sure of its pleasantness. Also, he will do well to study his diction and emphasis.

34. The counselor should have regular hours, where possible, and confine interviews to these hours except in emergencies.
35. A frank discussion of a problem is usually desirable.

INTERVIEW RECORD

Counselor _____
Pupil _____
Date _____ Hour _____ Length of interview _____ minutes
Problem _____

Was pupil aware of his problem? _____
Who sought the interview? _____
Was the interview a routine required one? _____
If so, was any problem discovered? _____
How was the problem approached? _____
What action was agreed upon? _____
What feature of the situation requires special treatment? _____

Is a future interview desirable? _____
Who asked for it? _____
When will it be held? _____

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Keep a sheet on your desk and tally every incident that you believe should be dignified with the term "individual counseling." Check with the principles of counseling suggested in this unit, and see if your techniques can be improved. If they cannot, score your work with a big *plus*.
2. It would be interesting for a faculty to keep records of times and places of individual counseling interviews.
3. Another helpful study would be one of the types of problems which pupils discuss with teachers.
4. After the above studies, teachers may wish to set up a program for individual counseling that will increase effi-

- ciency and eliminate a good deal of interference and overlapping.
5. Set up a program of discussions of the various problems of counseling.
 6. Write six suggestions for organization of your counseling (a) as a homeroom teacher and (b) as a classroom teacher.
 7. You are a classroom teacher and a problem arises with a pupil in a class. The difficulty is one of (a) conduct, (b) learning, and (c) personality adjustment. How would you set up the interview in each case?

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Group Counseling

The algebra class had come in, and Miss Brown was about to open the lesson when she observed a special agitation among the pupils. They didn't seem to be interested in algebra. Something else had seized their attention, and they apparently wanted to discuss it. Miss Brown, being more interested in the development of the individuals in the class than in her subject, asked them what the special concern was about. The reply given by a half dozen at the same time was that Tom Simpson, a senior, had been declared by the faculty to be ineligible to play football in an important game the following day. Tom was the star of the team. But he was not to be allowed to play because he had been caught cheating in an examination the day before, and the school was up in arms.

Miss Brown realized that very little algebra would be learned that period until this problem had been disposed of. Hence, the class was organized for a frank discussion of the problem. A committee of five was appointed to prepare some thoughtful questions for discussion, and after the first question had been stated, the teacher, acting as moderator,

opened the class discussion, while the committee continued to grind out further questions.

The entire class period was devoted to the discussion, with class members permitted to suggest any further questions. The vote of the class at the end of the period was in support of the school authorities.

The above procedure is one example of what is known as "group counseling."

In group counseling a vast amount of necessary information can be considered both effectively and economically. Furthermore, a condition of rapport is established between the counselor and the student; for the student in becoming well acquainted with the counselor in group activity feels free to approach his counselor for a private interview. Then, too, as Milor says, if there is not group counseling, there is great infrequency of contact with pupils in the office counselor's system. For example, under the latter system he questioned a boy who had seen his counselor once for 10 minutes in the preceding semester. This fact is further corroborated by the following quotation from Allen and Bennett.¹

One of the most important values of group guidance activities lies in the fact that they provide continuity of contacts between the teacher-counselor and his students for an appreciable period of time. Without the group activities, these contacts would be limited to scheduled or occasional interviews, and it would be impossible for a counselor really to know the students with whom he was attempting to counsel.

Without a program of group activities, guidance would be largely remedial, repairing the machine after the damage had been done. It is only through group guidance that it is possible to

¹Richard D. Allen and Margaret E. Bennett, "Guidance through Group Activities," in *Guidance in Educational Institutions*, 37th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., 1938.

select the problems with which all pupils are sure to be confronted and to prepare pupils *in advance* with the information and the procedures necessary for a wise solution of the problems when they occur.

Finally, every group guidance activity is an open invitation for pupils to come to the teacher-counselor for assistance with their individual problems. When pupils bring their own problems to the counselor, an attitude of "guidance readiness" is ensured. The group activities help them to develop awareness of the nature of their problems and to become interested in solving them.

- ✓ Group counseling may be defined as considering in groups vital problems that are common to a number of individuals in a group. Examples would be the discussion of table etiquette, principles of good citizenship, qualifications of officers for the homeroom, student council, or local municipal council, sportsmanship, qualities needed for a particular job, how to study, how to choose a vocation or avocation, etc.
- ✓ In other words, *group* counseling differs from *individual* counseling mainly in that problems of a particular pupil are those of a number of others and the individual does not speak up and admit that a problem is his own. In no case is the discussion likely to be centered on the problem of a designated individual.

Group counseling is essential in any secondary education program. Teaching of high school subjects, necessary in any situation, is not sufficient for a well-rounded education.

In many cases, the traditional subject is considered essential to a curriculum but does not appeal to the pupil as of vital interest to him, for the adolescent, much as he may *appear* to be having his needs met in the *regular high school subjects*, has problems that to him are much more significant. How to make himself attractive to the other sex, how to "make friends and influence people," what will help him to grow up rapidly, how to get a job and be able to buy

things he cannot now have—these and many other problems are live ones but are seldom considered in any organized fashion in regular school subjects. To satisfy these vital needs such problems must be given a specific time and place and must be handled by certain definite techniques, some of which follow.

Some Techniques in Group Counseling

The lecture method may be used in some situations in group counseling, particularly where dispensing information or developing ideals or attitudes is the purpose. The term "lecture" is not particularly fitting in this situation. It too often implies something formal and possibly uninteresting. It might be better to call it "direct teaching" or some other term descriptive of economical methods of informing or influencing people. The use of motion or still pictures, graphs and charts, excursions to business establishments or other establishments of interest, and many other similar procedures accompanied by oral explanation or description should consume most of the group counseling time listed under this head. It is essential that the lecturer be thoroughly prepared for his job. His presentation must be interesting and worth while or results will be negligible.

Group counseling usually does not imply the *telling* of something to pupils, valuable as this is under certain conditions. It is likely to be more successful if the pupils themselves are more active than is possible in the lecture situation. In many cases where group counseling is desirable, the teacher acts merely as a leader of discussions carried on by the pupils. This procedure is commonly called the "socialized recitation." It matters little how the teacher organizes the class. The central principle is that the pupils should think cooperatively on some problem that to them is significant.

It is important that guides to thinking be prepared before the socialized recitation is attempted. These may be arranged by the teacher or by a committee consisting of pupils alone or pupils in cooperation with the teacher. The panel discussion, in which certain questions have been prepared beforehand and are asked by a leader of discussion who does not attempt to sway the direction of the thinking, is an excellent example of the socialized recitation. It is not difficult to handle, and it is usually successful. Three principles, however, must guide the use of this method. (1) The questions must be meaningful and carefully stated. (2) The subject must be one in which opinions are acceptable and scientific exactness is not demanded. (3) The leader must be acquainted with the subject and capable of arousing the interest when it threatens to lag. An important characteristic of such classroom procedure is that no pupil is put "on the spot" by being asked questions which he must answer or suffer the consequences. He is allowed complete freedom to think without fear of the teacher's disapproval. He is never assigned a question or asked a direct question by the teacher. It is not suggested that this should always be the classroom situation, but it is maintained that pupils frequently should have the pressure for pleasing the teacher withdrawn and the opportunity for objective thinking substituted.

Dramatization is an excellent technique in group counseling. While the lesson is vividly taught, a number of the class members have the opportunity to participate in the activity. This technique is particularly useful in teaching such topics as etiquette, morals, and ethics. A dramatic or radio skit showing some common mistake frequently made in social situations is likely to be very effective.

Classes are frequently organized into committees for the consideration of some vital problem. These committees pre-

pare their reports, and the chairmen present them at an entire class session. It is sometimes effective for the chairmen to sit as members of a panel for discussion of the problem or problems under consideration.

A clinical approach to the solution of a group problem is that in which a case is presented for consideration by the group. It differs from the panel discussion mainly in that the problem is presented as a *case* which might refer to one of the members of the class but never does; the individual involved should never be enough like any member of the class to be identified with that pupil. A teacher preparing such cases should always remember this caution. The late Dr. Allen of Providence, R. I., wrote two books² on the subject and laid down a few rules for the conduct of such discussions. The following suggestions are approximately what Dr. Allen recommends:

- ✓ 1. The case should be one of immediate concern to the members of the group but anonymously presented.
2. The case should be presented in sufficient detail to permit all pupils to see it clearly.
3. A number of significant questions should be prepared beforehand either by the teacher or by a committee of pupils, or by both working together.
4. The case should be read to the group or presented in mimeographed form with appropriate questions.
5. The leader should always remain in the background and should consider it his duty only to keep the discussion on the subject and to secure adequate summarization of the conclusions reached or general trends of thought.
6. The leader should never express his own opinion, although he may occasionally ask questions intended to bring atten-

² Richard D. Allen, Frances J. Stewart, and Lester J. Schloerb, *Common Problems in Group Guidance*, Richard D. Allen, *Case-conference Problems in Group Guidance*, Inor Publishing Company, Inc., New York, 1934. Volumes I and II of the Inor Group Guidance Series.

tion to a particular line of thinking he considers desirable but which the group has evidently not sensed

7. Discussion of the case should stop short of *ennui*.

An illustration of a case and the questions which accompany it follows:

Charles and Robert were considered good students. Their intelligence ratings were about the same. They were studying Spanish and making about equal grades, in the high 80's or low 90's. They recited well in class with one exception. Charles could not read well "at sight" material he had not studied beforehand. Robert seemed able to read new materials almost as well as those he had studied. When they finished high school, Robert went on to college, continued his study of Spanish, and, on graduation, obtained a position as an interpreter.

Charles tried Spanish in college, but gave it up at the end of a year because his Spanish lessons took too much of his time.

Questions:

1. Evidently Robert was the better Spanish student. What did you discover in his high school work that indicates this?
2. How do you suppose the two boys differed in their study habits?
3. Which used the dictionary more?
4. Which gave more nearly exact translations in class? Why?
5. Which read faster? Which read more?
6. Which one probably could speak more Spanish? Why?
7. Which boy read more nontextbook material, such as newspapers, magazines, jokebooks; listened to Spanish songs on the radio; sought the acquaintance of Spanish-speaking people?
8. State two principles which you believe should guide a person who is studying a foreign language.
9. Can you apply your conclusions to other subjects? Illustrate.

Group Counseling in Other Activities

While we have been considering group counseling only in homerooms or in classes set up for the purpose, there are a number of other activities that are usually considered as performing the group counseling function. Among these are the school assembly, a great many types of clubs where much group thinking and discussion is engaged in, school government, the homeroom organization activities, and committee work in many school activities. Outside of school are civic activities. Boy and Girl Scouts and other such groups, Sunday school, young people's religious groups, etc. All these and many others furnish opportunity for education of the individual in problems that to him are vitally important.

The best method of selecting problems for group counseling is to choose those that are actually facing the group. One counselor who wanted materials for her group guidance program went out onto the playground and observed the situations that arose in connection with pupil contacts there. She looked for real problems in the subject matter classes she was teaching and asked other teachers to hand her lists of those that arose in connection with their daily work. She went still further, and asked pupils in her group counseling sections to list subjects they would like to consider. Among these, as was expected, were such questions as: "How shall I choose a vocation?" and "How can I get a job?" Others referred to boy-girl relations and how to be popular.

There are many lists of problems for group counseling, but one of the best is that by Wendell Yeo.¹ The problems are classified under the following heads.

- ✓ 1 Health and Physical Fitness
- 2 Family Relationships

¹ J. Wendell Yeo, "Suggested Content for the Group Guidance Program," *Education*, Vol. 65, pp 80-89, October, 1944. Used with permission.

3. Vocational Planning and Adjustments
4. Educational Planning and Adjustments
5. Utilizing Free Time
6. Social Adjustment
7. Personal Values
8. Finances
9. Personal-psychological Relations

These problems are listed below according to the school grades in which they might well be presented. (It should be stated that no scientific determination of grade level has been made, but there is some evidence that the assignments are satisfactory.) The numbers before each topic indicate the areas to which it belongs among those that are listed above.

Grade 7

- 4, 6 Getting acquainted in our new school
- 4 Differences between elementary and junior high school
- 4 Learning how to study
- 7 What should my responsibility be toward the property of others?
- 6 Courtesy in the classroom
- 3 Why people work
- 3 Survey of different occupational fields
- 4 Learning how and where to ask for help
- 9 Are my angry moments worth while?
- 4, 7 What constitutes cheating in homework?
- 6 What kinds of manners affect popularity?
- 2 Relationships with brothers and sisters
- 8 Managing a weekly allowance
- 9 Learning how to accept criticism
- 6, 7 Seeing the good and beautiful in the lives of others
- 7, 8 The borrowing and lending habit—good or bad?
- 7 The code of a good sport
- 1 A check list of sound health habits

- 9 Would I be considered selfish?
- 2, 8 Helping my family live within its income
- 5 What to do in free time

Grade 8

- 7 On becoming a responsible person
- 4 Do I know and practice good study habits?
- 6, 7 How important are one's companions?
- 7 Meaning of good sportsmanship
- 4 Things to consider in choosing high school subjects
- 4, 7 Is "getting by" good enough?
- 5 How to acquire new interests and develop old ones
- 3 Vocational ladders
- 4, 5 Making the most of clubs and other student activities
- 2 Sharing home responsibilities
- 6, 9 Personality--what is it?
- 7, 9 Relationship of our thoughts and actions
- 1, 4, 5 Budgeting one's time for rest, study, and play
 - 4 How can I learn of my real abilities and aptitudes?
 - 6 How should I regard the opinions of others?
 - 6 The right thing to do at social affairs
 - 5 How to start a hobby
- 3, 4, 7 Finding pleasure and pride in good workmanship
- 6, 7 On the keeping of confidences
 - 9 Building self-confidence
 - 9 Lessons to be learned from defeat
- 8 Earning one's spending money

Grade 9

- 8 Planning to finance one's education
- 3, 4 Reasons for continuing my education
- 4, 7 What qualities should a good student possess?
 - 9 How can I learn how to control my temper?
 - 7 Should I smoke?
- 2, 6 What can I do to make people like me?
- 3, 4 Relation of school subjects to vocational life

- 6, 7 How to act at a party
- 6 Teachers are people, too
- 3 How to choose an occupation
- 9 What's wrong with daydreaming?
- 1 How much sleep should junior highs get?
- 1, 9 Why do I feel tired so often?
- 9 Overcoming self-consciousness
- 7 Is it ever right to tell a lie?
- 4, 5 How to choose a club
- 7 Sportsmanship in action
- 4 Meaning of college certification
- 4 Requirements for graduation from high school
- 3, 4, 6 Proper dress for school, parties, and business
- 2, 6, 7 How should boys and girls act toward each other?
- 4, 7 Need for rules and regulations
- 4, 7 "He goes to 'X' high school"
- 2 Evidence of loyalty to one's home and family

Grade 10

- 8 Youth's financial needs and resources
- 6, 7 What about "going steady" in high school?
- 4, 6 How to make good in high school
- 1, 3, 4, 6 Differences among people: mental, physical, and social
- 6, 7 Traits that make us liked
- 9 How to break a bad habit
- 9 What to do about worry
- 2 Do parents expect too much from their children?
- 1, 3, 6, 7 Qualities of leaders
- 3 Getting and holding a part-time job
- 6 What about dates?
- 9 Facing inferiority
- 1, 3, 4 How does one learn of one's special abilities?
- 7, 9 "But everyone else is doing it"
- 3, 4 Factors to consider in choosing a college
- 3, 4 How important is my high school record?
- 6, 7 Characteristics of the lady, the gentleman

- 1, 6 Good health, the basis of a radiant personality
- 4 The place of the high school in the community
- 1 How to improve one's personal appearance
- 6, 7 Many acquaintances or a few friends—which?
- 6, 9 How to overcome racial prejudices

Grade 11

- 1 Rest, diet, exercise—what I need, what I get
- 6, 7 What shall we talk about?
- 9 Dangers in being hypersensitive
- 1, 2, 4, 5, 7 First things first learning to live on twenty-four hours a day
- 2 Getting along with the members of one's family
- 6, 7 Problems in etiquette for youth
- 6 The meaning of social maturity
- 7 Ethics for modern youth
- 7 The kind of a person I am becoming
- 8, 9 Achieving independence
- 9 Fundamental human drives
- 9 Ways in which people adjust to conflict
- 5 Finding worthy avocations
- 3 Summer work as vocational experience
- 6, 7 Who is a tolerant person?
- 3 Qualities of leadership
- 6 Value of a good reputation
- 7 Youth on the highway
- 1, 3, 4, 6, 8 Establishing personal goals
- 9 What is meant by "hero worship"?

Grade 12

- 3 How to get and hold a job
- 3 How to make the most of that first job
- 3 Legislation affecting youth today
- 2, 3, 6, 7, 8 The high school senior looks at marriage
- 4 Keeping on growing. post high school educational opportunities
- 3 Meaning of occupational adjustment

- 9 When is a person emotionally mature?
- 7 Finding a faith to live by
- 5, 6 What price popularity?
- 2 Factors making for happy home life
- 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 Adjustment problems of college freshmen
- 7 The senior's responsibility to lower classmen
- 3, 7 Ethics in business
- 7, 9 Attitudes—determinants of success or failure
- 3 What may an employer properly expect of me?
- 9 Mental health and how to achieve it
- 7 High school graduate's obligations to his community
- 7 Holding fast to one's ideals
- 1, 4, 5 How to keep physically fit

After these problem listings, Yeo explains, "Because of the several organizational plans possible for imparting occupational information no attempt has been made in these listings to include topics on *specific occupations or fields of occupations.*"

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Select one of the above questions, prepare it carefully, and using one of the methods listed, demonstrate with your class to a group of teachers how it can be handled. It is not expected that this demonstration will be a finished job. The teachers observing should discuss together how the procedure can be improved. Several teachers should prepare units by different methods and present them to groups of pupils in the presence of other teachers. The order of presentation may be determined by lot.
2. Any program of group counseling should be organized on a grade basis with special care that the problems considered are not covered in any other grade or subject. If a

school has not had a group counseling program before, it would probably be well to start with the highest grade in the school, covering in that grade as many of the most important problems for that and the lower grades as possible. The program can then proceed with the grade next below, covering the work it has missed to date, but reserving problems which are assigned to the highest class, etc

- 3 Plan a research program intended to reorganize the program of studies so that overlapping with the group counseling program will be eliminated.
- 4 Organize a committee to develop techniques for group counseling.
5. What changes would you make in the handling of your extracurricular program that would improve the group counseling program therein?
6. One of the most important functions of a group counseling program is that of indoctrinating pupils in the idea and techniques of studying their own needs, interests, aptitudes, and capacities. How would you organize such a program so that it would function best? See the bulletin published by the Chicago Public Schools ⁴ for suggestions.

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MCDANIEL, HENRY B : "Do We Have Time Enough for Counseling?" *California Journal of Secondary Education*, Vol. 18, pp. 177-182, December, 1943 In this article, the author describes how group counseling can be effectively used not only for imparting information

⁴ Grace E. Munson and L. J. Schloerb, "High School Courses in Self-appraisal and Careers," Chicago Public Schools, Chicago

but also for screening students needing individual counseling, bringing counselors in closer touch with parents, and helping to plan future educational programs. A counseling profile is pictured. The author concludes if any school is organized to make full use of well-planned group guidance activities, there is time for counseling in that school's program.

METCALFE, HAROLD H.: "Group Counseling at the Eleventh-grade Level," *School Review*, Vol. 54, pp. 401-405, September, 1946. Using a high school guidance program as a basis for his study, the author presents means for evaluating it. He describes methods in group counseling and cites examples of group conferences in which the meaning of the Kuder Preference Record is discussed after each member of the group has taken it. Group guidance, he concludes, enables the dean to meet many students in a personal way, group thinking stimulates the individuals, leaves more time for individual counseling, and promotes interest in the entire group.

RATHBUN, J. E.: "Functions of Group Counseling," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, Vol. 20, pp. 447-452, December, 1945. The author divides group counseling into three major functions: imparting factual information, interpreting environmental factors in terms of personal experiences, and group therapy, which includes the discovery and treatment of the maladjusted. He says that the true value of group counseling is its developmental aspect, that finding pupil's problems is one of the first requisites, and tells how that can be done. Methods of scheduling group guidance activities are described. Continuity and regularity are called minimum essentials if continuous growth and development of students is to be obtained.

SACHS, GEORGIA M.: "Evaluation of Group Guidance Work

in Secondary Schools," *Southern California Educational Monographs*, No. 14, University of Southern California Press, Los Angeles, 1945. Which is the more effective group-guidance plan, that employing the services of a specialized guidance teacher or that using the home-room teacher? The author reports measurements of the relative effectiveness of the two plans as they are carried on by two different junior high schools.

WATTS, M. S.: "Thinking about Personal Problems," *Clearing House*, Vol. 19, pp. 474-479, April, 1945. The author, reporting on a method of teaching English which she has used for a period of years, tells how the "problem approach" increases the interest and performance of her pupils in writing and reading. At the same time it provides them with continuing guidance on social and moral problems and teaches them to think constructively.

Capacity and Achievement

Mrs. Dailey had come to the high school and wanted to see June's homeroom teacher. June had taken another poor report home, and Mrs. Dailey had had enough. She reported that June had not been allowed to go out in the evenings and had been required to spend a definite amount of time each evening in study. Mrs. Dailey had done her part and now it was about time the school began to produce.

Miss Corwin, the homeroom teacher, was embarrassed. She knew why June was receiving low grades. June just was not a capable child. She was studying hard, probably harder than she should, but was unable to raise her grades. Now, Miss Corwin had to confess to the mother frankly that June could do no better. It was a difficult situation for both, but they faced it. Some curriculum changes were arranged which enabled June to make a better record with her limited ability. She was placed in a curriculum where her good manipulating ability made her reasonably successful.

The next day Mr. Truitt came to Miss Corwin to discuss his son, Spencer. Here was an easier situation. Spencer

was a boy of unusual ability but he was taking home a report which was rather consistently "average." Ways and means were considered, and Spencer was called in to discuss the problem with them. He was reminded that his chances of entering Harvard, his father's alma mater, were exceedingly slim with his record to date. He was told that he who consistently fails to live up to his capacities may find this becoming habitual and himself a person of no consequence.

Some methods of approach were also suggested in this conference. Spencer claimed that the work was usually too easy and not interesting. For these reasons he preferred to spend his time in reading books which were not related to his subjects and in participating in certain extracurricular activities. Also, he was engaged in afterschool work which occupied 2 hours of his time each day.

During the discussion, he decided to give up his work, use somewhat less time for extracurricular activities, and devote more of his time to study. In turn, the homeroom teacher agreed to give him help on methods of study and to suggest to some of his teachers that he be allowed a bit more time for reading in the library on areas in which he was particularly interested. He agreed to check himself frequently and to take standardized or other tests whenever possible.

These two cases illustrate a problem which is one of the biggest in the guidance field, that of keeping pupils' achievements somewhere near to their capacities. Some pupils of limited capacity overwork and make their lives miserable because they are constantly far behind the better students. On the other hand, many pupils of high ability are allowed to loaf through school with mediocre or only slightly better than average records.

These cases represent a moderately satisfactory situation. The teacher knew that June had very limited ability and that

Speneer was very able. Another case illustrates a less satisfactory situation. Mrs. Ruther, a woman of much more than average intelligence, called on Miss Lake, her son's fifth-grade teacher, to see if something could be done about Walter's grade of D in English. Miss Lake was visibly annoyed by Mrs. Ruther's visit, but she relaxed when assured that the mother had not come to criticize her but to see if something could be done to improve Walter's work. Miss Lake said that she did not know what to do. Perhaps he could not do any better. When Mrs. Ruther asked her if she knew that Walter had a high I Q, she admitted that she did not.

Here was an unfortunate situation. The teacher was presuming to teach pupils whose abilities she did not know. Consequently, the problem of keeping achievement up to ability was entirely a hit-or-miss affair. Surely no reputable doctor would attempt to prescribe for a patient whom he knew only as "someone who complained of not feeling well." He would use every possible means of learning the patient's medical history and present condition before presuming to treat him. So every intelligent teacher will spend a good deal of time studying her pupils in order that she may help each one to develop to the limit of his ability.

But one of the tools which have helped to aggravate the situation emphasized here is the old-fashioned report card which shows that June's grades are the same as Spencer's but with no qualifying statements. The ordinary parent will put as much pressure on June as he will on Spencer. In the former case, the pupil's health, both physical and mental, may be seriously injured, while in the latter vigorous pressure may be what is needed.

To correct this error, the newer type of report cards indicate not how a pupil stands as compared with his classmates but whether his progress is satisfactory for one of his ability

Such reports usually rate the pupil S or U, satisfactory or unsatisfactory—in other words, living up to his ability or not living up to his ability.

The question is always asked, "What about recommending him for college or a job? Shall we recommend for college everyone whose work is satisfactory?" That would be as unwise as entering a plow horse in a trotting race because "he ran as fast as he could." The answer is contained in the guidance program. The pupil's cumulative record is relatively complete and he is recommended for a job or further training on the basis of his ability, interest, and special aptitudes. On this record is an indication of his rank in class and his percentile rankings on intelligence tests as well as on any achievement tests he has taken.

The reader should be reminded that the most "retarded" pupil in the school is usually the one of most ability who is not held up to his maximum production.

Another caution is that the teacher should not condemn a pupil who is deficient in certain types of ability. He may have a surplus of some other type. A guidance worker should never sentence a pupil to a life of failure.

Numerous examples of persons with apparent lack of ability in school who later became famous, are found in history. Thomas A. Edison is one of these commonly mentioned examples. However, we should not overlook such individuals as Isaac Newton, Robert Fulton, Sir Walter Scott, Henry Ward Beecher, and Herbert Spencer, all of whom showed little promise in school.

Since the matter of matching ability and accomplishment is of such vital importance, three forms are presented which are intended to assist the teacher, the pupil, and the parent to identify problems and act intelligently in relation to them. These forms are, in order:

1. The scattergram (for class use)
2. The capacity-achievement report (for the individual pupil)
3. The report to parents

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. In a certain college during the Second World War, two young men from the same town were enrolled in a Navy V-12 program. Their grades were approximately the same, but one was "washed up" and dropped from college while the other was retained. When the commander of the unit was asked the reason, he replied that the man who was dropped would never become a good officer because he did not live up to his capacity and, consequently, would not inspire men to perform on their highest levels. Criticize pro or con the stand of this officer.
Are we justified in taking a similar attitude in (a) public schools? (b) colleges? (c) teachers colleges? (d) graduate schools? Should a teacher who does not make a serious effort to know the capacities of her pupils be retained on a faculty? If your answer is yes, would it be the same if that teacher were teaching your child?
2. Henry C. Morrison claimed that a teacher should spend half her time studying her pupils and the other half doing what this information indicated should be done. You may disagree with Dr. Morrison. If so, how would you change the statement?
3. Work out a plan other than the scattergram for locating pupils not producing on their capacity levels.
4. After you have discovered that a pupil is living far below his capacity level in your subject, your most difficult problem is helping him to correct the difficulty. Select an actual case, and lay out a definite program of corrective work.

UNIT 19

The Scattergram

A simple and graphic method by which a teacher may analyze the achievements of her class is furnished by the so-called "scattergram." This is merely a picture of the accomplishments of the class set against a background of their abilities. The portrait which one teacher drew of her class and which furnished a number of shocks is given below.

		Accomplishment in History				
		1	2	3	4	5
Ability to Learn	5		S.K.	S.D.	R.M. G.A.	K.L. F.A. M.G.
	4		J.E. C.G.	N.S.	D.E. A.M. B.T. L.R.	
	3	C.U.		R.K. T.A. G.I. I.G.	I.M.	
	2	E.R.	F.D. J.M. C.V.	A.T.	A.W.	
	1	J.A. D.K.	B.L.	S.L.		

This teacher obtained ability rankings of her class of 30 pupils by using a diagnostic reading test and a scholastic aptitude (intelligence) test and taking average rankings on the two measures. She then ranked the pupils in history by means of an objective test which she prepared. Beside the name of each pupil, listed vertically, she put in two columns his rankings—first, in ability to learn and, second, in accomplishment in history on the basis of the fifth of the class in which he was placed in each category. Armed with this information, she placed them on the scattergram in the following manner. Pupil C U ranked in the third fifth in ability to learn and in the first fifth in accomplishment in history. Therefore, he is placed in row 3 in ability and in column 1 in accomplishment. Pupil K L, who ranked in the fifth fifth in each, is placed in the fifth row in ability and the fifth column in accomplishment. Thus each pupil is placed in his proper square in the scattergram. It will be observed that the first fifth in each case represents the lowest group and the fifth fifth the highest.

Now comes the importance of the picture. This particular teacher had not heretofore given much attention to the abilities of her pupils. She had trouble enough worrying about the accomplishments of some of them. On examining the picture, she found that 16 of her pupils were ranged in the squares running from the lower left corner to the upper right corner of the diagram. These were properly placed, therefore she gave her attention to the other 14 who did not appear in these squares. In order to give attention where it seemed to be most urgently needed, she began with S. K. Here was a boy who ranked in the upper fifth in ability to learn but in the second fifth in accomplishment. This hiatus seemed serious and she attacked the problem with vigor. She looked up his standings in all his other classes and found that in three of his five subjects he was doing excellent work.

She checked again on his ability and found that he stood high in the upper fifth. On talking with the three teachers in whose work he was doing well, she found that all of them had discovered his ability and had given additional interesting work, over and above the required amount done by most of the pupils. He was doing outside projects and being provided with opportunities to express his accomplishments in a number of ways. The teacher in the fifth class, in which he was doing even poorer work than in the history class, considered him just a common nuisance and was threatening to report him to the principal for exclusion from her class.

Being an intelligent person, his history teacher told her findings to the principal, who called a meeting of all S. K.'s teachers for discussion of his case. All the information available was presented to the group, and the findings indicated that the three successful teachers probably had the solution of the problem. The two teachers in whose classes he was not succeeding decided to discuss his case with him and endeavor to apply techniques similar to those that other teachers had found successful. However, they realized that no two teacher personalities are similar and that the problem might require some time for solution. An important consideration here was that other teachers appeared to have solved it. The remaining pupils whose accomplishments did not reach the levels indicated by their abilities were taken up individually and attempts were made to resolve their difficulties. In general, they were reasonably easy of solution.

One other pupil, however, who gave the teacher some concern, was A. W. Along with several others, she was accomplishing far more than was warranted by her ability to learn. It was discovered that she was working much harder than conditions seemed to warrant. While working till late at night to keep her grades up, she was retreating

from all extracurricular activities and social affairs. Her health was being impaired and her attitudes toward life were becoming unfortunate. The solution of the problem was difficult because any other approach to the situation would undoubtedly lower her grades while she was participating in desirable social and recreational activities. Two attacks on this problem were possible. One was a change of program in order that she might take courses which were less difficult or better adapted to her particular abilities. The other was a change of marking system which would give her satisfactory grades if she did the best she was capable of doing. It seems to the writers that there are few other solutions for this type of case unless the teacher, using the present marking system, relax her scholastic requirements for those less capable pupils who are ambitious to excel in their grades and put her grading tacitly, if not admittedly, on different bases for pupils of different capacities.

This discussion has raised the suspicion that the teacher who uses the scattergram is likely to get herself into troubles that would otherwise not face her. However, no teacher who is a real teacher will regret the challenge of keeping pupils somewhere near their abilities. It should be said here that a variation of one-fifth, or one quintile, is far less serious than is a variation of two or more quintiles. The former deviation may be due to some chance element. A variation of more than one quintile will always warrant a careful investigation and generally will call for procedures so important that it is well for the case to have the attention of a number of interested, intelligent teacher-counselors.

Some will ask how this can be handled in situations that do not lend themselves to objective measurement. It is not being proposed that this be attempted. However, there are no doubt scientific-minded teachers and counselors who will attempt to project some such techniques into situations that are much more subjective in nature. For all others, it is

suggested that the scattergram be confined to those situations lending themselves to objective measurement.

It is not claimed that this technique is infallible. Surely a scholastic aptitude test and a reading test do not give an absolute indication of a pupil's capacity. Scholastic aptitude tests are growing from the situation where a single score was the only result, through the A.C.E. Psychological Examination with two factors, to the Chicago Test of Primary Mental Abilities with six factors.

If the A.C.E. test is used in the scattergram, it is suggested that the Q score only should be used if the subject is of the quantitative type and the L score only if the subject is of the literary type, including English and social studies.

But the reader should be reminded that techniques for determining how a pupil's accomplishment compares with his ability do not solve the problem. They are helpful in keeping the facts before the teacher and pupil, but when these are understood, only a start toward readjustment has been made. And it is entirely possible that the matter will stop there.

When the ability and accomplishment are not matched, there is some reason for the discrepancy. In the case of the pupil working below his ability, he may not know how to study; he may not care to study; he may dislike the subject; he may dislike the teacher; the possibilities for individual development in the study or activity may not have been made clear to him; he may be giving too much time to extracurricular activities in school, or he may be working too long before or after school. All of these and many other possibilities should be investigated. But one of the most profitable lines of investigation is that of the methods of teaching used in the class or classes in which he is not doing good work. The teacher is always wise to look to her own accomplishment when trying to keep the pupil up to his possibilities. Perhaps the teacher, herself, is a case in point.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. You are a classroom teacher and desire to prepare a scattergram which will give you a graphic picture of how the pupils of a certain class are living up to their capacities. There are 28 pupils, and their capacities and accomplishments are shown in the following tabulation. The pupils are indicated by letters of the alphabet, plus AB and BC. They are ranked: (1) according to intelligence, (2) according to scores in a reading test, and (3) according to a test in your subject.

You will observe that in intelligence E and W have equal rank ($25\frac{1}{2}$), Y and Z have equal ranks ($2\frac{1}{2}$), and O and P have equal rank ($17\frac{1}{2}$). In reading, E and F have equal ranks ($24\frac{1}{2}$), and in the achievement test in subject matter L and M have equal ranks ($9\frac{1}{2}$).

An explanation of how these ranks are arrived at may be helpful to persons not acquainted with statistics. It will be noticed that E and W each has a score of 123, and in determining the rank if one had been larger than the other, these would have been 25 and 26. However, since the scores are equal their ranks must be identical. Therefore, we add 25 and 26 which equal 51, and divide by 2, the result is $25\frac{1}{2}$, the rank of each score. In the case of Y and Z we add 2 and 3 and divide by 2, the answer being $2\frac{1}{2}$, the ranks of the two scores of 80. Had three scores been identical, temporary ranks would have been added and the sum divided by 3. Likewise, with larger numbers of temporary ranks, the totals would be divided by the number of scores that were identical.

In arranging ranks according to quintiles, the total number of scores is divided by 5. In the case given here the quotient given is 5%. Any rank below or equal to

5% is in the first quintile, any above this and not more than 11% is in the second quintile, any score between 11% and 16% is in the third quintile. Any score between 16% and 22% is in the fourth quintile, and any score between 22% and 28 is in the fifth quintile. Here we come to the worksheet (shown below) for preparation of the scattergram (also shown below).

Pupils	Intel scores	Intel. ranks	Reading scores	Read ranks	Intel and read aver ranks	Subj scores	Subj ranks	Quintiles	
								I&R	Subj.
A	100	13	71	23	18	70	14	4	3
B	121	24	62	17	20½	94	27	4	5
C	82	4	46	6	5	48	2	1	1
D	98	12	51	9	10½	90	24	2	5
E	123	25½	74	24½	25	85	22	5	4
F	129	28	74	24½	26¼	68	13	5	3
G	84	5	43	4	4½	83	19½	1	4
H	102	14	55	12	13	66	12	3	3
I	104	15	65	19	17	84	21	4	4
J	119	23	68	20	21½	77	17	4	4
K	117	22	69	21	21½	95	28	4	5
L	86	6	52	10	8	62	9½	2	2
M	88	7	50	8	7½	62	9½	2	2
N	96	11	58	13	12	65	11	3	2
O	110	17½	60	15	16¼	91	25	3	5
P	110	17½	59	14	15¾	75	16	3	3
Q	116	21	64	18	19½	58	7	4	2
R	94	10	54	11	10½	57	6	2	2
S	90	8	45	5	6½	54	5	2	1
T	114	20	70	22	21	88	23	4	5
U	92	9	48	7	8	50	3	2	1
V	108	16	61	16	16	72	15	3	3
W	123	25½	78	28	26¾	92	26	5	5
X	125	27	77	27	27	59	8	5	2
Y	80	2½	38	1	1¾	83	19½	1	4
Z	80	2½	42	3	2¾	51	4	1	1
AB	78	1	39	2	1½	46	1	1	1
BC	112	19	75	26	22½	80	18	5	4

Capacity	Achievement				
	1	2	3	4	5
5		X	F	BC, E	W
4		Q	A	J, I	K, B, T
3		N	P, V, H		O
2	S, U	R, L, M			D
1	Z, C, AB			G, Y	

2. Select one of your classes, and prepare a scattergram. Intelligence scores will probably be on file in the office. Reading scores may also be available. If not, you may give the Gates, Tlaxler, or Iowa test, or even an improvised test. Average the ranks in these two tests. Give an objective test in your subject. This may be a standardized test or one made by yourself. In either case it should be a valid test, that is, one that really measures achievement in the subject. Rank the pupils according to the scores in this test, and, using results of the three tests mentioned above, prepare a scattergram of your class. Be prepared to demonstrate in a faculty meeting the construction and use of the scattergram.

The Capacity-Achievement Report

While the scattergram is helpful in reminding the teacher that certain pupils' abilities and achievements are out of line, it is not a tool that can be used to remind the pupil of his dislocation. Such a report, however, can be prepared and has been found extremely useful in adjusting an individual pupil's achievement to his capacity. A report form of this type with its construction and its application is given below

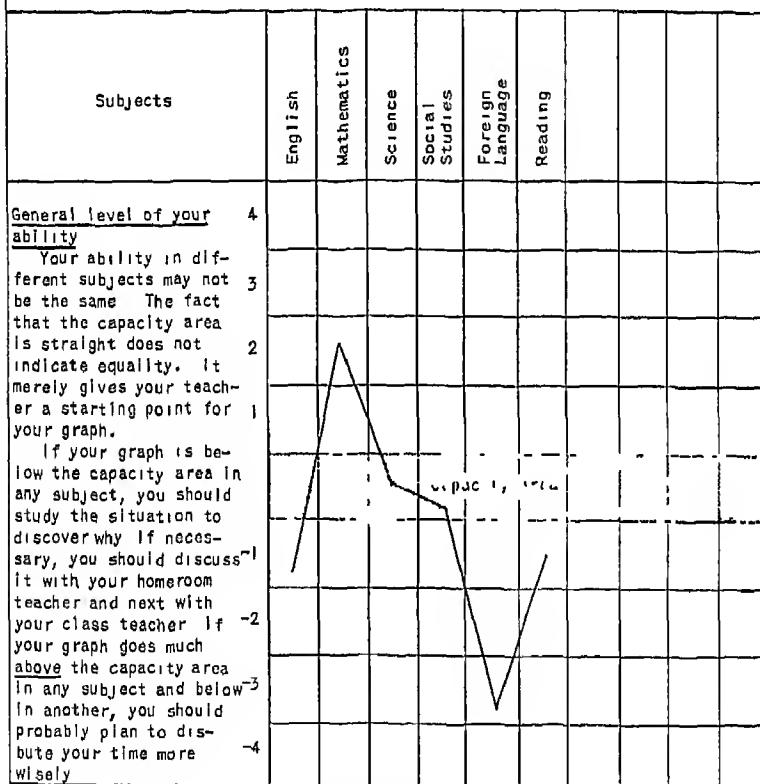
The reader will observe that there are nine quintile spaces on the capacity-achievement chart instead of the five that might be expected. The explanation is as follows: The middle quintile or "capacity area" represents the capacity of any pupil regardless of his level of ability or the subject involved. A look at the scattergram will indicate that a pupil's achievement may be three quintiles away from his ability (see S. K. on the scattergram in the fifth quintile in capacity and the second quintile in accomplishment) or,

CAPACITY-ACHIEVEMENT REPORT

School _____

Pupil _____ Age _____ Grade _____

Homeroom or Core Teacher _____ Date _____



Teacher Comments

in an extreme case, as much as four quintiles. The chart shown provides for these wide deviations.

The principal should have a supply of capacity-achievement blanks on hand for the use of homeroom teachers and counselors. Preparation of the report for a pupil takes very little time.

The capacity area represents a quintile. If the pupil's accomplishment is within the quintile of his ability, it is regarded as satisfactory. However, the pupil's approximate location in the quintile should be shown. The farther the achievement graph is from the capacity area, the more serious is the problem.

The graph shown is that of James Cason. He is doing better than is expected in mathematics, and his work in science and social studies is satisfactory. However, his work in linguistic studies is three quintiles lower than is to be expected and in English and reading one quintile lower. Possibly he likes mathematics, dislikes English, reading, and foreign languages, and does not distribute his time wisely. Whatever the cause, he should ask for a conference with his teacher.

Examples of the Use of the Capacity-Achievement Report

1 For an illustration of the capacity-achievement report, refer to the scattergram and locate J. E., James Egan. He is found to be in the fourth quintile in ability to learn but in only the second quintile in accomplishment in history. Now, no matter how high or how low his ability, it is assumed to be represented by and located in the middle quintile (capacity area). His accomplishment in history, then, is represented by a point in the second quintile below the capacity area. Where this will be located in the quintile will depend on the seriousness of the deviation of his accomplishment

from his capacity. It is possible for him to be only slightly over the line into the second quintile or deep into it.

What shall be the treatment of James Egan? That will depend on a number of conditions. If his accomplishment is noticeably above his capacity in some other subjects, it may be desirable to help him in distributing his time more equitably. If he has not learned to read intelligently in history, this problem should have attention. It is hardly necessary to remind teachers of any subject that one of the first things to do in starting a new class is to determine the reading ability of every pupil in that particular subject. If he just dislikes the subject, the teacher should study the methods used, the pupil's background, and the possibilities of arousing interest. These are only three of many suggestions that may be effective.

2 One more case that illustrates the use of the capacity-achievement report is found on the scattergram. It is that of S. L., Sarah Long. Sarah is in the lowest fifth in ability to learn but in the third fifth in her accomplishment in history. If the tests she has taken are valid, she is accomplishing considerably above her capacity. Her capacity, again, is represented by the quintile known as the "capacity area." This is not to be confused with the idea that her capacity is the same as that of James Egan, who is located in the same area. In her case, accomplishment in history is indicated by a dot in the second quintile above the capacity area. The report tells that she is accomplishing work in history that is far above her capacity, and here is an implied suggestion that the teacher and pupil should investigate the situation. She may be especially interested in history and giving it too much time. She may have been reading history for years as a hobby. Her reading ability in history may be much greater than her reading ability in some other fields. This may be a fine feature and merit encouragement on the teacher's part. On the other hand, she may be neglecting

subjects or activities that are desirable in her development. She may be overstudying this subject, and perhaps others, to the detriment of her health. The above are only a few of the possibilities in understanding this case.

In each of the preceding cases, the capacity-achievement report provides an excellent background for the discussion of the problem by the teacher and the pupil. While it is not always necessary or perhaps desirable for the report to be taken home, it will be very helpful in any home where the parents are understanding people.

It is not expected that a capacity-achievement report will be given to every pupil. For instance, 16 of the 30 pupils appearing on the scattergram will not receive one. Likewise, perhaps a number of others not quite in line will be handled without the help of this report. However, in each class there are likely to be a few who will profit by its use. The capacity-achievement report is a very simple device. Every homeroom teacher should have a supply of printed blank copies on one of which she can very quickly sketch a picture of a pupil's capacity-achievement status.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. The purpose of the capacity-achievement report is to bring squarely to the attention of the pupil his achievement status as compared with his capacities. Try to devise a capacity-achievement report different from the one presented here.
2. Debate in a faculty meeting the subject: *Resolved*, That thousands of dollars are being wasted every year by our failure to hold pupils up to their capacities.
3. Debate the subject: *Resolved*, That the loss in human happiness every year by our attempts to have pupils live up to a set average cannot be measured in dollars.

The Report to Parents

Cooperation between teacher and parent is indispensable in any successful school program, and the so-called "report to parents" is one of the important means of keeping this contact effective.

The traditional report to parents, which gives a pupil an A, B, C, D, or E, or 100, 90, 80, 70, or 60, originated in the high school that taught only a select group of pupils, nearly all of whom planned to go to college. If they were to get into college on the basis of their grades, those grades had to compare them with their schoolmates and eliminate those too weak to do college work. To be sure, some of them became disappointed and discouraged, and for some, no doubt, the system was unfair, but the scheme served pretty well.

The teacher should be reminded that in 1880, when nearly all high school pupils were looking forward to college entrance, only 100,000 pupils were enrolled in the public high schools of the United States. In 1890, the number had doubled, in 1900 it had risen to 500,000. By 1940, more than 7,000,000 pupils were enrolled.

But as the number grew and every man's child was going to high school regardless of his capacity and financial ability to attend college, the percentage of high school graduates entering college had dropped to 15. This means that 85 per cent of the graduates do not attend college. This does not, however, include the many thousands of pupils who because of discouragement or other reasons drop out of school and in most cases are lost in the whirlpool of humanity. Most schools do not follow them up, and in some cases there are evidences of relief when their names are removed from the rolls.

In any high school of considerable size, one finds pupils of from very low to very high scholastic aptitude. In some schools, but not in large numbers, pupils are grouped homogeneously, usually according to scholastic aptitude. This furnishes some relief from the strenuous competition, but even in this situation wide variations in ability are found. Comparing a pupil with his classmates even in this situation may be unfortunate and unfair.

Grading systems that compare pupils of high and low abilities to the discredit of the latter have been instrumental in bringing on many tragedies among adolescent youth. Of poignant memory to the author was the adolescent who tried ever so hard to get grades satisfactory to his parents. When, after all his struggle, he brought home three failing marks out of four, he went to his room and took the only path that appeared open to him—suicide. Another case is that of a girl of limited ability who had a brilliant sister. Her parents continually pointed to her sister and told her that she could do as well if she only tried. They didn't realize, apparently, that she was already working far harder than she should. This case was approaching a tragic conclusion when the unfortunate girl told her plans to a sympathetic and wise counselor. The counselor visited the home, and laid the

problem bare before the parents. She told them that the girl was about to take her own life because she could not do what they expected of her. The parents were told of their daughter's limited ability, and the recommendation was made that she be placed in a curriculum in which her ability would enable her to succeed. Here, to be sure, she was not a high-grade student and did not receive honor grades; but she was encouraged at home, and she gradually attained satisfactory adjustment.

There is no intention to convey the impression that all low-grade pupils when compared with their classmates contemplate self-destruction. Many seem to accept the fact with equanimity, and many others attempt to compensate by conduct which is considered antisocial. The very fact that a pupil who works hard has to be compared with one who performs far below his capacity is not likely to bring happiness to the less able pupil.

But very often the damage to the brighter pupil is even greater. Where pupils of all levels of ability are graded in comparison one with the other, the standard for the school is likely to strike a level far below the best that the capable pupil can do. He may develop lazy habits and, although he may be receiving the highest grade the school gives, he is deteriorating because he is not using his talents. The most retarded pupil in many a school is the most able pupil who is wasting his time and failing to live up to his possibilities.

The report to parents shown below is radically different from the traditional one and is intended to correct the difficulties involved in the comparison of each pupil with every other pupil, regardless of the capacity of any one. This report provides for comparing a pupil's achievement with his capacity to achieve. It is with the idea, then, of encouraging every pupil to live up to his best, regardless of the level of his capacity, that the report to parents is presented

THE REPORT TO PARENTS

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REPORT TO PARENTS Junior or Senior High School								
School _____				Homeroom Teacher _____				
Pupil _____				Age _____		Grade _____		
<i>To Parents:</i> Reports on pupils' - of satisfactory on approximate be expected to same thing in is considered satisfactory regardless of the quality of the work				only in terms e is achieving that he should him mean the The work of any pupil who is doing his best				
Subjects (Kind and Year)	1st Period	2nd Period	3rd Period	Final 1st Sem	4th Period	5th Period	6th Period	Final for Year
English I								
Days absent								
Times tardy								

<p>Probable reasons for unsatisfactory work</p> <div style="display: flex; flex-wrap: wrap;"> <div style="width: 50%;"> <p>1 Ill health</p> <p>2 Absence</p> <p>3 Lack of interest</p> <p>4 Out-of-school duties</p> <p>5 Too many extra-curricular activities</p> <p>6 Lack of effort</p> </div> <div style="width: 50%;"> <p>7 Lack of reading ability</p> <p>8 Poor study habits</p> <p>9 _____</p> <p>10 _____ etc.,</p> <p>(Additional causes may be listed by the teacher)</p> </div> </div>	<p>Signature of parent</p> <p>1 _____</p> <p>2 _____</p> <p>3 _____</p> <p>4 _____</p> <p>5 _____</p> <p>6 _____</p>
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Where it is believed that unsatisfactory work is due to one or more of the causes listed above, the number or numbers of the cause or causes are written into the square containing a U. In any case, when a pupil receives a U, it is wise for the parent to see the homeroom teacher. If a pupil is achieving beyond what should be expected of him, the teacher should mark him S+. This means that the parent should make an appointment for a conference with the homeroom teacher.

(Note: The parent's signature indicates merely that he has seen this report and not that he approves of it.)

(See other side)

(Back of Report to Parents)

COMMENTS ON PUPIL PROGRESS

By homeroom teacher:

By parent:

Period

1

2

3

4

5

6

This report covers mainly the academic progress of your child. If you are concerned about his social and personal traits, work habits, etc., you are invited to write or call the school or, better, visit the principal and the homeroom teacher.

If the pupil is living up to his capacity, his mark is S (satisfactory), no matter what grade of work is done. For the brilliant student, this means work of high quality and sufficient quantity. For the pupil of limited capacity, the quality and quantity may be much lower. Yet in each case the work is satisfactory, that is, the pupil is doing his best. The teacher will find the determination of what is *satisfactory* work much easier if she uses the scattergram, and the pupil will be more successfully handled if the teacher make use of the *capacity-achievement report*.

The mark of U (unsatisfactory) is given to that pupil who is performing below his capacity. Again, evidence is presented by the two forms just mentioned.

Here, however, a scheme is provided for the teacher to indicate what she believes to be the reason or reasons why the pupil is not matching accomplishment with capacity. If she finds on the card a reason for unsatisfactory work which she believes is valid in this case, she puts into the space with the U the number of that reason. For instance, if she believes that lack of interest is the reason for poor work, she puts the number 3 in the space. It is entirely possible that she may consider that the poor work has behind it a number of causes, and in such a case more than one number will appear with the U.

There is another mark which may be significant. If the teacher believes a pupil is achieving results beyond his capacity, she may give him a mark of S and place a plus (+) after it in the square. This indicates a situation serious enough to justify a conference with one or both parents and signifies a request for such a conference.

The question will immediately arise as to how you will report to colleges those few pupils who continue into higher education. The suggestion made elsewhere in this volume that pupils be recommended to college on the basis of com-

parisons with other members of their own school as well as with persons throughout the country is a valid one. In these days very few schools should be found that do not give all their pupils at least a standardized scholastic aptitude test. The pupil's rank in his class on such a test and his percentile rank in comparison with pupils on a nationwide basis will be very helpful here. Add to that his rank on standardized subject matter tests and the consensus of opinion of his teachers as to his ability to do college work and the matter of recommending him to college is practically solved as far as scholastic aptitude is concerned. To be sure, he must have more than scholarship if he is to be a successful college student, but at this time we are considering only scholastic aptitude.

It is pertinent here to refer to the matter of tests which pupils take, either standardized or homemade. It should be emphasized that the exact score of every pupil be recorded, no matter how low it is. This, as well as any comparative scores which are recorded for use in recommending him to college or a prospective employer, should be filed in his cumulative folder. Such scores or comparisons should not be posted or in any way given to other pupils in the school. A pupil may be given his score but with the suggestion that he may want to keep the information to himself.

The question may be raised as to whether a pupil should ever be required to repeat a course. The answer is that he will repeat a course when, in the opinion of his classroom teacher, his home-room teacher, and the principal, it will be more profitable for him to take that course again than to go on to additional work in that subject or in some other one.

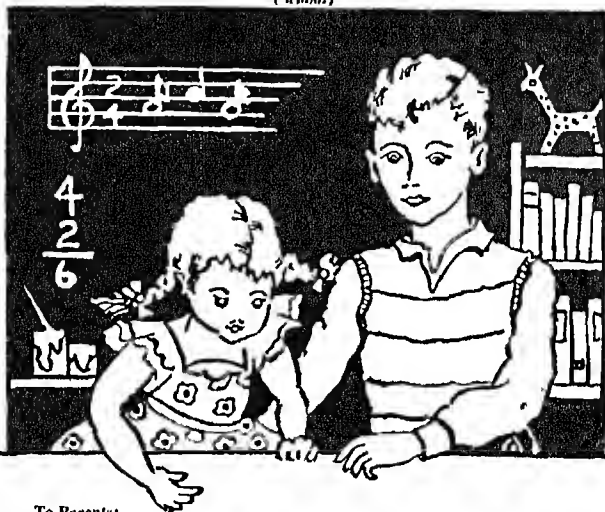
It will be observed that the report card shown here does not list character traits and habits such as are given on many present-day reports to parents. The reason is that in most cases such ratings are made by only one person and may

DENVER PUBLIC SCHOOLS
REPORT TO PARENTS

Student's Name _____

Grade _____

(School)



To Parents:

At school we are trying, as you are in the home, to direct the growth of your child so that he may live wholesomely and effectively as an individual and as a member of a democratic group. Democracy is a way of living that demands the highest physical, emotional, social and intellectual development of each member.

Children differ in interests, abilities, past experiences, and the rate at which they grow.

Teacher _____

Principal _____

Semester ending _____

Assignment for next semester _____

Personal and Social Development**PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT**

- Seems to have good general health and energy
- Practices good health habits
- Shows physical skill and coordination

SOCIAL ADJUSTMENT

- Gets along well with others
- Does his share in a group activity
- Accepts authority
- Shows leadership

PERSONAL RESPONSIBILITY AND SELF-DIRECTION

- Thinks for himself
- Shows self-confidence and poise
- Cares for property
- Is creative and resourceful
- Has a variety of interests

WORK HABITS

- Listens and follows directions
- Has materials ready and starts promptly
- Finishes work on time
- Takes pride in neat and accurate work

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE**IS AT HIS BEST IN****SHOWS GREATEST NEED FOR IMPROVEMENT IN**

FIRST	SECOND

Explanation of marks

- 1 excellent
- 2 good
- 3 average
- 4, lowest passing mark

DENVER PUBLIC SCHOOLS REPORT TO PARENTS

Student's Name Grade

Progress in Subject Fields

SPEAKING

Expresses ideas well
Speaks clearly
Uses correct forms of English

READING

Shows growth in reading skills
Reads with understanding
Reads widely

WRITING

Expresses ideas well
Shows creative ability and imagination
Writes legibly
Spells correctly in written work

SOCIAL STUDIES . .

- Is aware of the problems of the class and is interested in solving them
- Contributes to the planning of activities
- Gathers pertinent information
- Draws valid conclusions
- Organizes and presents materials
- Bulldoes new understandings into everyday living

ART

Enjoys art activities
Shows creative ability
Shows skill in handling tools and materials

MUSIC

Enjoys singing
Is learning to read music
Enjoys listening to music

ARITHMETIC

Uses numbers readily
Is learning number facts and processes
Can use numbers in solving problems

SUGGESTIONS TO PARENTS

The value of this report depends largely upon the attention you give it

Talk it over with your child

Visit your child in his classroom Arrange for a conference with the teacher

Help your child select his books, radio programs, movies, and other leisure time activities

Write your comments and suggestions, and sign this card before returning it

TEACHER'S COMMENTS

PARENT'S COMMENTS

Parent's Signature

have much less validity than is desirable. Furthermore, the program of guidance proposed here provides for anecdotal records and a relatively valid system of personality rating. The suggested card provides, also, for comments at each report period by both the teacher and the parent and makes the suggestion that they meet for discussion of serious problems.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. The report to parents (pp. 225-228) was developed co-operatively by the elementary school principals of one of America's outstanding school systems. Criticize it from the standpoint of the following. (a) items included, (b) work required on the part of teachers, and (c) keeping pupils' accomplishments near to capacities.
2. Criticize the report recommended in this unit by the criteria suggested in paragraph 1 above.
3. Criticize the report to parents now used in your school by the above criteria.
4. Suggest a method for keeping the record recommended here with the smallest amount of work on the part of teachers.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

DEZOUCHÉ, DOROTHY: "The Wound Is Mortal," *Clearing House*, Vol. 19, pp. 339-344, February, 1945. The author presents in tonic language her vigorous reactions to marks, honors, and unsound activities, the "three horrors of teaching." The giving of grades heads the list. Coaching pupils for competitive honors follows close on its heels, as the "second atrocity." With a plea against labeling a pupil and for teaching cooperation rather than competition, Miss DeZouche maintains it

is a fine thing to develop leadership in a dozen children, but it is not a fine thing to leave the remaining 1,488 on the sidelines for their entire school life. The third "hoiioi" commented on is directing any activity "socially harmful or educationally unsound."

JOHNSON, C. S.: "Parents Help Plan Report Cards," *Nation's Schools*, Vol 38, pp. 45-46, July, 1946. Believing that the "point of view of parents should weigh heavily in deciding school policies and that a sound working relationship between home and school is vital in the education of youth," the author, a supervising principal, invited carefully selected parents to work with the junior high school report card committee. Newspaper articles, classroom discussions, and a letter to parents told of the new resulting report card and invited comments and suggestions. The final form of the report to parents is illustrated.

MACKENZIE, C.: "Report Cards for Parents," *The New York Times Magazine*, June 16, 1946, p. 34. This is a different kind of report card, worked out by the chairman of a youth committee on vocational guidance, with the aim of bringing home to parents the fact that home influences bear directly on a child's school report card. This card is for the parents to rate themselves; the ratings on 10 points of parents' attitudes toward the child's report card is short, to the point, and easy to do. The author of the card reports that parents are "very honest about it" and that it has been found "useful and effective." The card is illustrated. A good idea!

PETERSON, S. A.: "Reports to the Home," *Clearing House*, Vol. 13, pp. 67-72, October, 1938. After discussing developments in reporting systems used successfully in various sections of the country, the author lists 11 ideas that seem to him to answer the needs of a good reporting and grading system.

ROBERTS, ROLAND. "Report to the Public," *School Executive*, Vol 66, pp 30-31, August, 1947. This is a different kind of school report. It is addressed to the general public as well as to parents, is published in a special school edition of a rural weekly newspaper, and is excellently illustrated. A brief letter on the front page explains the issue as a "pictorial review" of the Kentucky County School System and expresses the hope that, as a result of the report, parents will visit the schools more frequently and will offer "helpful and constructive criticism." As the superintendent says, people look at pictures even if they do not read the articles, and the pictures selected present a vivid report of the school system. Ten statistics which complete the report are ones the school system should know and are chosen for a particular audience, the readers of a rural weekly newspaper in a county where there are some 2,000 pupils and where only 12 schools have electric lights. Schools of far larger enrollments might well follow this effective plan.

STILES, L. J.: "Up to Date Reporting," *School Executive*, Vol. 65, pp. 50-52, January, 1946. A system of reporting pupil progress to parents was developed by a teacher of Boulder and has been used successfully for 4 years. Several advantages of such a report are noted by the author and illustrations of the various pages of the report card used are given.

SUGDEN, W. E.: "Achievement Record vs Report Card," *School Executive*, Vol 66, p 34, July, 1947. The author tells of a new reporting scheme in an Illinois school system whereby each pupil receives a separate achievement card for each subject. The plan was worked out through cooperative studies of parents and teachers and takes cognizance of the "important factor of individual differences." Details of the cards are given.

Helping Pupils to Choose Curricula

The tendency today is for a large part of the secondary school program of studies to be general and required. This relieves the school of much labor in connection with assignment of pupils to school programs. The pupil takes these basic courses without question and without much guidance. The problem of guidance arises, however, when he chooses the minor part of his program—that which may be designated *special* or *vocational*. This part of the pupil's school program is probably closely related to his life career, whether it involves higher education or entering a job at the end of the high school course.

In some schools, pupils enter the ninth grade on the Tuesday following Labor Day and find their program cards carefully made out for them. The number of curricula is limited, and the number of pupils large. This is a very simple problem. The classes are organized at about the normal size, new books (or old ones) are given out, the teachers make their assignments, and all is well, apparently. Before the end of the week, however, the story is different. Pupils have been assigned to subjects that are difficult for them,

and the teachers have made assignments that do not differentiate between strong students and weak ones. Classes are large, and individual attention is difficult. Pupils begin to flounder and in many cases continue to flounder until the end of the semester or year. One boy of low scholastic aptitude, who was taking shorthand and completely baffled by it, was asked why he didn't change to another subject. His reply was that the only other subject he could take was French. Thus he would have been hopping from the frying pan into the fire. Here was just another case where guidance was not functioning in the choice of curricula and courses. It was a very nice-looking program of studies, but it just did not work. The school instead of the pupil was the chief concern.

At the risk of "carrying coals to Newcastle" we present here the type of program that would have obviated the situation outlined above. When these pupils entered the first grade, they should have had an intelligence test or reading readiness test which would have helped to determine whether they were ready for school and something of their probable progress through school. At the entrance to the fourth or fifth grades, they should have had another scholastic aptitude test and from time to time subject matter tests, mainly diagnostic, in order that their teachers might know their weaknesses and endeavor to do the remedial work necessary. Sometime during the eighth grade (for this was an eight-four school program), they should have had another scholastic aptitude (or intelligence) test and some comprehensive subject matter test, such as the Stanford Achievement Test or the Metropolitan Achievement Test. On the basis of these findings, along with the pupil's scholastic record over the past 8 years and the numerous other bits of information based on his personality, his activities, teachers' observations, and conferences with parents, the school

should have prepared for him a profile or story which his parents could understand. Then the parents should have been called in for a conference on his aptitudes and probabilities of success on various levels of scholastic endeavor, as well as something of what he might possibly want to point to as a vocation.

On the basis of the information obtained from a large number of pupils of all levels of ability and types of personality and aptitude, which runs fairly uniform in a given community from year to year, the school authorities should have sat down together months previously and taken stock of the situation. With the facts at hand they should have said, "Now, here are so many pupils of these various personalities, abilities, needs, and roughly probable futures. What kind of school program will best suit their needs?" Then there should have been a serious attempt to answer this question. When such a program had been prepared, the parents of every entering pupil should have been sent an invitation to visit the school and to consider with the school authorities the needs, capacities, and future of their children. No pupil's program should have been approved by the school until it had the understanding approval of the parent, unless the parent was definitely opposed to what the school believed to be the best interests of the pupil.

When a pupil enters a secondary school, he should be immediately assigned to a teacher who will, preferably, continue as his adviser throughout his stay in the school. This adviser (call him what you will—home-room teacher, class adviser, or counselor) should have in a folder the complete school history of the pupil, including scholastic record test results, home background, extracurricular activities, teachers' ratings, teachers' statements of his activities (anecdotal records), parents' opinions, and many other types of information.

But proper admission to secondary school does not guar-

anticipate that the curriculum problems are permanently solved. It is always possible that a mistake was made in the original assignment and an adjustment must be made. Again, the pupil may have the ability and interest but not the ambition. Or, he may not have learned to study. It may even be that he has become too much interested in extracurricular activities or a girl. He may become more interested in mischief in class than in being a successful student. Any of these problems and many others may require the services of an interested adviser. The solution may involve a change in curriculum. It may mean learning how to study or just getting his conduct readjusted or his time budgeted. Consideration and solution of the problems listed above are classed under *educational guidance*.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. This unit has dealt with the problem of helping pupils to choose curricula. It has said nothing about the teachers' helping to build curricula for pupils to choose or about enlisting the help of pupils and parents in the program of curriculum building. No program of guidance can be complete without machinery for revision of curricula as the needs of pupils and the demands of society change. Suggest a school organization for continuous revision of curricula as conditions change, which will bring into the revision program teachers, pupils, parents, and community leaders.
2. Rufus Simpson had his curriculum changed at the end of his sophomore year. He decides during his junior year that his second choice has not been a wise one. The curriculum he thinks he now wants is not offered in this school. How would you approach his problem and try to solve it?

Correcting Educational Defects

In the discussion of the scattergram, we learned how a teacher may single out pupils who are not matching accomplishment with ability. The capacity-achievement report is a device which assists the teacher and the individual pupil to face the facts of the pupil's accomplishment in relation to his capacity. The report to parents presents to the parents the accomplishment of the pupil in relation to his capacity. But it does one thing more. It shows what the teacher believes to be the reasons why a pupil is not living up to his capacity, when that is the case. The reasons given include ill health, absence from school, lack of interest, out-of-school duties, too many extracurricular activities, lack of effort, poor reading ability, and poor study habits. Space on the card allows the teacher to list additional items which she believes affect his work adversely.

But these suggested reasons for work below the pupil's capacity are those which the teacher *believes* to be correct. In some cases she may be wrong. How can the teacher decrease the likelihood that her judgments are in error? Here enter the techniques of diagnosis and remedial work. There

are few subjects in which these two processes are not essential. In any subject, the approach to ineffective learning should be to find out what the trouble is and to attempt to provide a remedy for the difficulty. Morrison¹ recommends the "mastery formula," which reads, "Pretest, teach, test the result, adapt procedure, teach and test again to the point of actual learning." He continues, "It will be noted that this is precisely the procedure adopted by other practitioners who work in the field of organic changes. The physician, for instance, who undertakes the cure of a patient, first makes his diagnosis, then formulates and applies treatment, then tests the results of his treatment, modifies treatment in accordance with his test results, and so on to success or failure. Even if he fails, the physician is eager to know *why* he failed."

The authors are glad to bring the above quotation from Dr. Morrison's book to the attention of the reader. His book is probably the best that has been written on high school teaching. It is recommended, also, for its suggestions in Part IV in regard to many problems in pupil personnel work.

Reading

The necessity of doing something about reading difficulties is highlighted by the fact, as indicated by many studies, that junior and senior high school pupils range in reading ability from third grade up. If any degree of success in high school is to be attained by such children, they must learn to read. Moreover, plenty of evidence is at hand that defective reading can be improved. Although cases are reported in which pupils under remedial treatment have gained as much as four school grades in 1 year, perhaps as convincing

¹ H. C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in Secondary Schools*, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1931.

evidence as is available is contained in the report of a remedial reading project in the New York City high schools, involving more than 2,200 pupils. Under this program these pupils raised their average reading grade level from 7.5 in September, 1937, to 8.6 in January, 1938. This improvement is nearly three times that which is normally expected.

It is exceedingly important to correct defects in reading, since probably 90 per cent of the learning in secondary schools is largely dependent on this skill. Therefore, few teachers on this level will expect success in most subjects for pupils who are not able to read the subject materials reasonably well. Hence, a recommendation that is almost mandatory for any teacher who expects effective learning on the part of her pupils: a reading test in the subject being taught. The test will be of little value except to point out poor readers, but this is a preliminary to corrective procedures.

What type of test should she use? A simple suggestion has been found in many discussions of the subject, and it has been tried by numerous teachers: Ask every pupil to start reading in his textbook material not read before by any members of the class. All pupils should begin reading at the same point in the book and read until told to stop. When the stop signal is given, every pupil should circle the last word he read. Instructions should include the statement that each pupil should read at the rate at which he can understand what he reads. After the reading, a number of objective questions should be given to all pupils, the questions extending over the materials that are likely to be read by the best readers. When answers have been scored, the pupils may be ranked in speed and comprehension.

This method of locating poor readers can be supplemented by observing pupils to see how they behave when reading. Poor readers will turn the pages slowly, be restless and fidgety, and perhaps point to words as they read. Also, the

teacher can find out if and what a pupil likes to read and what books, stories, and articles he reads. It may be discovered that a pupil reads one type of material better than another. A good deal of attention in recent years has been given to discovery of reading defects by observation of eye movements. The ophthalmograph, a binocular camera for photographing eye movements, is used in many reading laboratories. There are other and less expensive methods of observing eye movements. One is known as the "peep-hole test," in which the teacher holds before the pupil a card containing reading materials. While the pupil reads material on the card, the teacher, who faces him, looks through a hole in the card about $3/16$ inch in diameter and observes the rapidity of the movements of his eyes. It is feasible, also, for the teacher to stand behind the pupil as he reads a book and observe his eye movements through a small mirror placed on the page of the book that he is not at that time reading. Pupils who have many eye movements are poor readers. Good readers have few eye movements.

After the pupil's deficiency in reading is established, it is well to give one or more diagnostic tests to discover specific difficulties. Probably the most used diagnostic tests are the Iowa Silent Reading Tests,² elementary and advanced, and the Traxler tests for grades 7 to 10 and grades 10, 11, and 12. The Iowa elementary test measures rate of comprehension, directed reading, word meaning, paragraph comprehension, sentence meaning, ability to alphabetize, and ability to use an index. The advanced test measures the above and in addition grade equivalents from 2 to 16.3 are given for the elementary test and percentiles for the advanced.

The Traxler Silent Reading Test³ for grades 7 to 10

² The Iowa Reading Tests are published by the World Book Company, Yonkers, N. Y.

³ The Traxler Reading Tests are published by the Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill.

measures rate, story comprehension, word meaning, and paragraph comprehension. The Traxler High School Reading Test measures rate of reading, story comprehension, and finding the main ideas in paragraphs. In the future, it will have a vocabulary test.

A test which has recently come into extensive use is the Gates Reading Survey⁴ for grades 3 to 10. It measures vocabulary, power or level of comprehension, speed, and accuracy. A desirable feature of this test is that there are no time limits for the vocabulary and comprehension tests.

When a pupil's reading difficulties have been discovered, what can be done about them? Only a few suggestions can be listed here.

If the pupil has poor eyesight, this can usually be corrected by fitting with proper glasses. If he is making too many eye movements, he can be trained to slow them down. If his difficulty is lack of speed, he can be trained to increase his speed by use of a machine called the "metronoscope," which moves the reading material out of the pupil's range of vision at a certain speed and thereby hinders his reading. It can be set to move at a considerable range of speeds. Since only one line at a time is seen by a pupil, however, the situation is not an entirely natural one. It is possible also for the teacher to move a large card down the page covering all that has been read so far and forcing the pupil to increase his speed if he wishes to gather the meaning of the material. This is sometimes called the "push-card" method.

However, one of the best methods of increasing reading speed is for the pupil to push himself to the limit. The pupil should practice trying to grasp an entire phrase at a time and proceed from there to entire lines and sentences. Even learning to skim may increase his speed materially.

⁴ The Gates test is published by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

Grasping the topic sentence of a paragraph usually gives a good idea of what is in it. A pupil who reads the preface of a book may have a pretty good idea of its central idea. Reading a book's contents carefully and checking divisions of chapters will also speed up understanding.

To improve the understanding of materials in any subject, attention should first be given to the vocabulary in that subject. It is a simple matter for a teacher to prepare a vocabulary test in her subject. It would not need to be prepared anew each time the subject was taught, but it might be revised from year to year as the subject developed. When weaknesses in subject vocabulary are known, techniques for correcting them can be worked out. Other remedial methods include practice in reading to comprehend, to search out details, to get the central idea, and to find topic sentences.

But the best method of correcting reading defects is reading. Poor readers read very little and, conversely, persons who read very little are usually poor readers. Hence, the teacher who finds that pupils are poor readers should endeavor to induce them to read extensively. Any of the tests already mentioned will give an idea of the school grade in which a pupil's reading would place him. To get a pupil to read, the teacher may select such techniques as the following: Learn in what school grade a pupil's reading places him, and see that he has plenty of attractive reading matter of that level of difficulty. In one school, for instance, the teacher indicates, by a sign unknown to the pupil when he goes to the library for books, something of his difficulty. The librarian takes special interest in the case and tries to recommend books she believes will interest him and that he can read.

The pupils' interests should have a big place in the selection of books. A questionnaire on the types of books a pupil

likes and the specific books he has read lately will form the background for book recommendations. Many teachers give pupils "big-little" books, because they are always easy to read and are brief enough to enable a poor reader to complete one in a reasonably short time. Furthermore, the vocabulary is seldom above fifth-grade level. *Free-reading* periods, recommended strongly by Morrison⁵ for all pupils, are specially helpful for poor readers.

In this training, book reviews should never be required, but the pupils should be encouraged to indicate on cards the books they have read and encouraged, but not required, to tell something about the books. In other words, reading must be an enjoyable exercise. A poor reader is not likely to find it very enjoyable if he is dreading the possible consequences.

It would be interesting and helpful if we could go into the subject of remedial reading much more extensively. However, this subject is only one among many in this volume, and it can merely be introduced. It should be mentioned, however, that reading difficulty is only one item in an entire situation. It may be a cause or an effect of a personality difficulty. A pupil with a decided inferiority feeling may have his reading adversely affected by it. On the other hand, if he is a poor reader, he is frequently removed from the social contacts he desires, becomes ingrown, and develops feelings of inferiority and of not belonging. The cause may be poor eyesight, poor hearing, speech defects, no reading facilities or incentives at home, or the most meager ones at school; it may be an inherited low mental ability, or poor teaching in the early grades. Whatever the cause, the teacher will meet the pupil as another person who has a problem to solve, and who presents a challenge to her scientific approach to problems. If she maintains such an

⁵ Morrison, *op cit*

attitude, the pupil is fortunate. If she happens to be a person who "treats 'em all alike," then Heaven help the children!

Language

Whether correct speech and writing are essential to a young person's success depends to a considerable extent on the education and training of the persons with whom he regularly associates. The writer remembers the owner and manager of a farmers' market who dealt largely with illiterate persons and who was financially very successful. Relatively few persons who attended the market were concerned about the English used by the proprietor.

An opposite case comes to mind. A young woman of unusually high intelligence commuted from this same community to college. Her unfortunate habits of speech were so definitely fixed that the author recalls four errors in speech made by this young woman in three consecutive sentences the day following her initiation into Phi Beta Kappa. (And she was an English major!) The best proposal, then, is that children, no matter what their background or future situation, have bad English habits corrected to the degree possible with the individual capabilities and home and community surroundings.

Perhaps the best suggestion here is that every teacher of all pupils, regardless of the subject taught, be careful with his own English and appoint himself a teacher of "remedial English." Of pleasant memory is the lady, now retired, who made correct speech an important feature of her algebra class. Many a professor of education, trained in effective speech, has made correct speech a part of his course in education, regardless of the course title, for prospective teachers frequently come from homes and communities not noted for purity of speech.

While it is realized that the young person looking for a job will find that his personality and character are of first importance, it must be acknowledged that employers complain bitterly of the lack of ability of employees to use the bare fundamentals of an education—communication and number. And our educational experts today are emphasizing that in too many cases these fundamentals are not mastered in the elementary school. If taught at all, then it must be in the secondary school.

How shall defects in spoken English be detected? Any teacher can easily jot down errors in spoken English as they are made in class or in other school exercises. One teacher kept a vest-pocket book which he called his "Joke Book," where he regularly wrote pupils' speech errors. He did not try to conceal the fact that he had heard a "good one," as he wrote it in the book, but he never wrote it immediately after the mistake was made. He waited until there was little chance of identification of the person who made the error. His pupils always considered it a red-letter day when he took time out to conduct a game with these "jokes."

What are the most common errors in spoken English? Lyman⁷ studied such errors among school children in four widely scattered cities and in consolidated schools in Iowa. He found the seventeen most common errors to be the following: (1) Ain't, hain't, (2) Saw and seen; (3) Plural subject with singular verb, (4) Double negative; (5) Have got; (6) Come and came, (7) Git; (8) Them and those, (9) Teach and learn, (10) Can and may, (11) Do, did, done, (12) *And* for *to* with infinitive; e g., *Try and* for *try to*; (13) Shall and will; (14) Go, went, gone; (15) Subject of verb not

⁷ R. L. Lyman, *Summary of Investigations Relating to Grammar, Language and Composition, Supplementary Educational Monographs*, No. 36, p. 72, The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1929.

in nominating case, (16) I and my brother; (17) Frank and me, in nominative case.

To detect errors in written English, teachers should check compositions, examination papers, and other informal writings by pupils. They may also use standard diagnostic tests such as the Barrett-Ryan-Schammel English Test.⁸ It measures sentence structure, grammatical forms, and punctuation. The Tressler Minimum Essentials Test⁹ measures grammatical correctness, vocabulary, punctuation and capitalization, the sentence and its parts, sentence sense, inflection and accent, and spelling. Other tests which will be found helpful are the Cooperative English Tests.¹⁰ Test A: Mechanics of Expression, Form Q, Measuring Grammatical Usage, Punctuation and Capitalization, and Spelling, grades 7 to 12. The Wilson Language Error Test¹¹ has two forms, each consisting of three stories containing 28 errors each. Pupils are expected to discover and correct errors.

Remedial measures, in addition to those already mentioned, consist of workbooks,¹² either published or prepared by English teachers for local use; special remedial classes for pupils who need attention, even excusing the poorer pupils from regular classes; assigning problem cases to other pupils

⁸ The Barrett-Ryan-Schammel English Test is published by the World Book Company, Yonkers, N. Y., 1938.

⁹ The Tressler Minimum Essentials Test is published by the Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., 1941.

¹⁰ The Cooperative English Tests are published by the Cooperative Test Service, New York.

¹¹ The Wilson Language Error Test is published by the World Book Company, Yonkers, N. Y.

¹² For an excellent series of English workbooks, see *Practice Activities in Junior English* (Books 1, 2, 3) and *Practice Activities in Senior English* (Books 1, 2, 3, and Advanced), World Book Company, Yonkers, N. Y., 1937-1943.

who will help to correct their errors, individual counseling by homeroom teachers or English teachers; having pupils speak and write on their special interests and asking for corrections, coaching classes with no English credit until satisfactory progress has been made, and requiring writing for school newspaper with proofreading done by the pupil under guidance of experts, etc.

Arithmetic

Many teachers can remember when offering arithmetic in high school was felt by most people to be practically sacrilege. Algebra, geometry, and trigonometry were the only subjects of sufficient standing scholastically in a high school program of studies. There were continual complaints from employers that graduates couldn't do the simplest arithmetic problems, but in most cases the blame was passed on to the elementary school "where it belonged." The old-line mathematics courses were still the only ones deserving a place in the high school. But the complaints continued, and teachers were reminded that only 15 or 20 per cent of high school graduates went to college. This left at least 80 per cent of the graduates and all the dropouts who were not likely to profit from traditional high school mathematics.

Gradually it began to dawn on high school teachers and administrators that something ought to be done about it. Pupils taking vocational and commercial curricula were getting related arithmetic courses that pretty well met their needs. But the others—and this included a large percentage of the dropouts—needed arithmetic training. Courses known as "senior arithmetic" (looked down on by many colleges) were offered in some schools, and in others courses known as "arithmetic review" or "general mathematics" were given. But many of these pupils showed serious deficiencies in

number work and indicated the need of definite programs of remedial teaching if corrections were to be made.

Brueckner¹³ sets up four functions of arithmetical instruction: the computational, the informational, the sociological, and the psychological. While it would be desirable for secondary school teachers and pupils to be acquainted with all these functions, we can scarcely expect pupils who are not looking forward to careers in some phase of mathematical work to emphasize the informational and sociological functions. The first and last functions, however, should be constantly in the minds of teachers who are concerned with remedial work in arithmetic.

The computational function has to do with the manipulation of number processes, the handling of verbal problems with reasonable speed and accuracy, and the checking of the work. The psychological function reaches out into the appreciational area, including the philosophy of numbers, as well as touching such practical matters as precise, orderly thinking, understanding and preparation of graphic representations, and the use of number in prediction. It is with these two functions, particularly the former, that we are concerned in secondary school remedial work in arithmetic.

Pupils entering the secondary school unable to use arithmetic with reasonable facility are usually the products of teaching with little of the Morrison "mastery formula" quoted earlier in this unit. "Pretest, teach, test the result, adapt procedure, teach, and test again to the point of actual learning"

The teaching in many cases also lacks the study of the child and his weaknesses, which is repeatedly recommended

¹³ L. J. Brueckner, "Diagnosis in Arithmetic," in *Educational Diagnosis*, 34th Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Ill., 1935.

in this book. There are, of course, fundamental difficulties which the teacher may find it hard to overcome, such as difficulties of sight, hearing, reading, and low mental ability.

How shall the secondary school teacher know that a pupil needs remedial work in arithmetic? One of the easiest ways of learning this is to observe him as he attempts to solve problems in algebra or geometry, if he takes those subjects, or in general mathematics or related mathematics. Work requiring much use of addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, fractions, decimals, or percentage will soon bring out such defects. If the pupil does not need to use numbers to any degree in his work, it is well for the school to give a general test in arithmetic early in his secondary school career. An excellent test for this purpose is the *Progressive Arithmetic Tests*¹⁴—Intermediate, for grades 7, 8, and 9, or the *Progressive Mathematics Test*, for grades 9, 10, 11, and 12. These tests cover the fundamentals and reasoning and are to a moderate degree diagnostic. To cover the wide range of arithmetical ability in a high school the *Progressive Mathematics Test* has grade norms from 4 to 16. The price in each case is 75 cents per 25. Another that may be used to discover pupils' ability in arithmetic is the *Stanford Advanced Arithmetic Test*¹⁵ for grades 7, 8, and 9 with grade norms from 2 to 11. There are numerous tests that will serve the purpose of screening out the poor students in arithmetic, but the two mentioned above should be adequate. However, many an alert teacher has prepared her own tests for this purpose.

When a teacher knows that a pupil is weak in arithmetic, what should be her procedure? Since she knows merely that he is weak but probably little more than that it may be in

¹⁴ The *Progressive Arithmetic Tests* are published by the California Test Bureau, Los Angeles, Calif.

¹⁵ The *Stanford Advanced Arithmetic Test* is published by the World Book Company, Yonkers, N. Y.

one or more of the fundamentals or in reasoning problems, she has less than enough information on which to base any remedial work. Her best procedure here is to give a diagnostic test such as the Buswell-John Diagnostic Test in the Fundamental Processes in Arithmetic. This test comes in two parts, the Pupil's Work Sheet and the Teacher's Diagnostic Chart. It is an individual test, and as the pupil works examples on the work sheet, he thinks aloud. The teacher, with the diagnostic chart in hand, checks the types of mistakes the pupil makes. Below is reproduced the Teacher's Diagnostic Chart¹⁰ for each of the four fundamentals in arithmetic.

Teacher's Diagnosis
for pupil. . . .

Published by the
Public School Publishing Co
Bloomington, Illinois

Printed in U S A

TEACHER'S DIAGNOSTIC CHART

FOR

INDIVIDUAL DIFFICULTIES

FUNDAMENTAL PROCESSES IN ARITHMETIC

Prepared by G. F. Buswell and Lenore John

Name . . .	School . . .	Grade . . .	Age . . .	IQ . . .
Date of Diagnosis . . .	Add . . .	Subt . . .	Mult. . .	Div. . .

Teacher's preliminary diagnosis

ADDITION. (Place a check before each habit observed in the pupil's work)

- | | |
|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> — a1 Errors in combinations — a2 Counting — a3 Added carried number last — a4 Forgot to add carried number — a5 Repeated work after partly done — a6 Added carried number irregularly — a7 Wrote number to be carried — a8 Irregular procedure in column — a9 Carried wrong number — a10 Grouped two or more numbers — a11 Split numbers into parts — a12 Used wrong fundamental operation — a13 Lost place in column — a14 Depended on visualization — a15 Disregarded column position | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> — a16 Omitted one or more digits — a17 Errors in reading numbers — a18 Dropped back one or more tens — a19 Derived unknown combination from familiar one — a20 Disregarded one column — a21 Error in writing answer — a22 Skipped one or more decades — a23 Carrying when there was nothing to carry — a24 Used scratch paper — a25 Added in parts, giving last sum as answer — a26 Added same digit in two columns — a27 Wrote carried number in answer — a28 Added same number twice |
|---|--|

Habits not listed above

¹⁰ Used with permission

SUBTRACTION: (Place a check before each habit observed in the pupil's work)

- | | |
|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> --s1 Errors in combinations --s2 Did not allow for having borrowed --s3 Counting --s4 Errors due to zero in minuend --s5 Said example backwards --s6 Subtracted minuend from subtrahend --s7 Failed to borrow, gave zero as answer --s8 Added instead of subtracted --s9 Error in reading --s10 Used same digit in two columns --s11 Derived unknown from known combination --s12 Omitted a column --s13 Used trial-and-error addition --s14 Split numbers | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> s15 Deducted from minuend when borrowing was not necessary s16 Ignored 1 digit --s17 Deducted 2 from minuend after borrowing --s18 Error due to minuend and subtrahend digits being same s19 Used minuend or subtrahend as remainder s20 Reversed digits in remainder --s21 Confused process with division or multiplication --s22 Skipped one or more decades --s23 Increased minuend digit after borrowing --s24 Based subtraction on multiplication combination |
|---|---|

Habits not listed above

MULTIPLICATION: (Place a check before each habit observed in the pupil's work)

- | | |
|---|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> --m1 Errors in combinations --m2 Error in adding the carried number --m3 Wrote rows of zeros --m4 Carried a wrong number --m5 Errors in addition --m6 Forgot to carry --m7 Used multiplicand as multiplier --m8 Error in single zero combinations, zero as multiplier --m9 Errors due to zero in multiplier --m10 Used wrong process--added --m11 Comed to carry --m12 Omitted digit in multiplier --m13 Wrote carried number --m14 Omitted digit in multiplicand --m15 Errors due to zero in multiplicand --m16 Error in position of partial products --m17 Counted to get multiplication combinations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> --m18 Error in single zero combinations, zero as multiplicand m19 Confused products when multiplier had two or more digits m20 Repeated part of table m21 Multiplied by adding --m22 Did not multiply a digit in multiplicand --m23 Based unknown combination on another --m24 Errors in reading --m25 Omitted digit in product --m26 Errors in writing product --m27 Errors in carrying into zero --m28 Illegible figures --m29 Forgot to add partial products --m30 Split multiplier --m31 Wrote wrong digit of product --m32 Multiplied by same digit twice --m33 Reversed digits in product --m34 Wrote tables |
|---|--|

Habits not listed above

DIVISION. (Place a check before each habit observed in the pupil's work)

--d1 Errors in division combinations	--d18 Used too large a product
--d2 Errors in subtraction	--d19 Said example backwards
--d3 Errors in multiplication	--d20 Used remainder without new dividend figure
--d4 Used remainder larger than divisor	--d21 Derived unknown combination from known one
--d5 Found quotient by trial multiplication	--d22 Had right answer, used wrong one
--d6 Neglected to use remainder within problem	--d23 Grouped too many digits in dividend
--d7 Omitted zero resulting from another digit	--d24 Error in reading
--d8 Used wrong operation	--d25 Used dividend or divisor as quotient
--d9 Omitted digit in dividend	--d26 Found quotient by adding
--d10 Counted to get quotient	--d27 Reversed dividend and divisor
--d11 Repeated part of multiplication table	--d28 Used digits of divisor separately
--d12 Used short division form for long division	--d29 Wrote all remainders at end of problem
--d13 Wrote remainders within problem	--d30 Misinterpreted table
--d14 Omitted zero resulting from zero in dividend	--d31 Used digit in dividend twice
--d15 Omitted final remainder	--d32 Used second digit of divisor to find quotient
--d16 Used long division form for short division	--d33 Began dividing at units digit of dividend
--d17 Counted in subtracting	--d34 Split dividend
	--d35 Used endings to find quotient

Habits not listed above

A diagnostic test that may be used with groups is the Wilson Inventory and Diagnostic Test in Arithmetic ^{16a} This is a series of diagnostic tests in arithmetic covering addition, subtraction, multiplication, short division, long division, and in addition, related decade facts to 39 plus 9. The numbers of different errors provided for in the various fundamentals are: addition, 24, subtraction, 30, multiplication, 24; short division, 27, and long division, 43.

One more diagnostic test which can be used with a group is the battery known as the Brueckner Diagnostic Arithmetic Test.¹⁷ The test covers whole numbers, fractions, and decimals. Dr. Brueckner's reputation as an expert in arithmetic is probably sufficient recommendation for this battery.

After weaknesses in arithmetic have been discovered, how

^{16a} The Wilson Inventory and Diagnostic Test in Arithmetic is published by the Palmer Company, Boston, Mass.

¹⁷ The Brueckner Diagnostic Arithmetic Test is published by the Educational Test Bureau, Minneapolis, Minn.

shall the deficiencies be corrected? The most common practice involves setting up remedial classes and in connection therewith having the teacher give as much attention as possible to individual pupil difficulties. In some cases, teachers in subjects other than mathematics have done incidental remedial work with individual pupils. This, however, has not been entirely satisfactory, although some homeroom teachers have done some successful remedial work in arithmetic. It is suggested that where a pupil is particularly poor he be asked to take as an individual test whatever diagnostic test is used and that he "think out loud" while taking it.

A number of work books have been produced which teachers will find particularly valuable. One of these is *Remedial Arithmetic for High School Pupils*,¹⁸ by Allen R. Congdon and Ronald B. Thompson. This includes tests, practice materials, and a teacher's manual. Morrison's plan is used in part, in that the program starts out with a pretest. If difficulties are revealed, the pupil works on practice materials. Mastery of a given unit is always required before the pupil is allowed to go on to another. Some other available workbooks are *Review Arithmetic* by Buswell, Brownell, and John,¹⁹ and *Learning to Compute*, by Schoaling, Clark, Potter, and Deady,²⁰ in two series.

The discussions of diagnostic and remedial work in reading, English, and arithmetic have been necessarily limited. However, it is hoped that enough suggestions have been presented to enable the teacher to look intelligently and sym-

¹⁸ The Allan R. Congdon and Ronald B. Thompson, *Remedial Arithmetic for High School Pupils*, University of Nebraska Press, Lincoln, Neb., 1937.

¹⁹ Guy T. Buswell, William A. Brownell, and Lenore John, *Review Arithmetic*, Ginn & Company, Boston, 1943.

²⁰ Raleigh, Schoaling, John R. Clark, Mary A. Potter, and Carroll F. Deady, *Learning to Compute*, World Book Company, Yonkers, N. Y., 1940.

pathetically at her halting pupils and draw from this unit something that will make solution of her problems easier.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Select any subject you are now teaching in which reading ability is considered significant. Prepare a test according to suggestions early in this unit. Administer the test, score it, and select the three or four pupils at the bottom of the list. Give them one of the standardized tests listed here. Plan a program for finding their specific difficulties and doing remedial work. When you have worked with them for a certain period, the length to be determined by you, give them another form of the first standardized test and see what success has been achieved. On the basis of results, plan a program for caring for larger numbers of remedial reading cases. (*a*) List the tests you will use; (*b*) suggest the remedial measures you believe will be most effective.
2. You are not a mathematics teacher, but you discover a pupil who evidently is entirely lost in any situation dealing with fractions. He is not taking a mathematics course, and the school offers none dealing with arithmetic. What is your procedure?
3. Errors in spoken English are not hard for the alert teacher to detect. You are not an English teacher, but you observe numerous errors in your classes. Plan a campaign to improve spoken English among your pupils.
4. You are not an English teacher, but you find many grammatical errors in written work handed in. Do you believe you should try to correct these mistakes?
5. If so, what is your plan? If not, what will you do about the problem?

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- BLAIR, GLENN MYLERS: *Diagnostic and Remedial Teaching in Secondary Schools*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1946. The author produced this book with two specific aims in mind: (1) to provide a basic text for courses in diagnostic and remedial teaching, and (2) to furnish practical suggestion to educators, supervisors, principals, and teachers who wish to set up programs in their own schools. Areas in the field dealt with are the improvement of reading; remedial techniques as applied to arithmetic, handwriting, English, and spelling, and general considerations, such as making case studies and the personal preparation that is necessary for remedial teaching. It contains many lists of enjoyable children's books, classified according to grade levels. Every school interested in increasing its pupils' ability to study should own a copy of this book.
- BLAYNE, T. C.: "Reading Center Implements Guidance," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, Vol. 20, pp. 288-292, May, 1945. The author, member of a state committee on developmental readings, gives here "a practical and realistic description of a reading center in action." A battery of tests determines what and how much in remedial reading is needed by each beginning student in the junior college. Poor readers are permitted to substitute work in the reading center for regular work in English courses. They keep careful charts of their own progress and reenter the regular English classes when test scores, etc., show they are able. A plan of operation is briefly outlined and a list of appropriate facilities listed.
- GLICKSBERG, C. I.: "Failure and Guidance," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 105, pp. 26-28, September, 1942. The author maintains that the central aim of education

is development of wholesome, integrated personalities, not marks or scholastic achievement. He says the school which identifies success in school with marks is creating the painful problem of failures. The part a grade adviser can play, the reasons teachers give for failing students, and the "entirely different version" given by the students themselves are discussed. The conclusions drawn are not new ones but can well be reread and cogitated.

GUILLER, W. S. "Difficulties in Decimals Encountered by Ninth-grade Pupils," *Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 46, pp. 348-393, March, 1946. The Christofferson-Rush-Guiller Analytical Survey Test in Computational Arithmetic was given to 936 ninth-grade pupils in five Ohio schools. Percentages of pupils showing specific weaknesses are given below.

<i>Ability Measured</i>	<i>Per Cent</i>
Changing fractions to decimals	60.7
Changing mixed numbers to decimals	82.7
Addition of decimals	33.0
Subtraction of decimals	33.3
Multiplication of decimals	6.6
Division of decimals	83.9

The author thinks this is a matter of serious concern. Until the difficulties can be corrected below the high school, secondary principals and teachers should institute an instructional program intended to diagnose and correct the difficulties.

SLAYBAUGH, D. B. "Functional English for Ninth Graders," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, Vol. 21, pp. 24-26, January, 1946. Based on the stated assumption that there have been "failures and on a gross scale in the department of English," the author here formulates in terms of student achievement 13 ninth-grade English objectives. A chart is given listing the devices to be used for measuring progress in achieving these various goals of English courses.

Articulation

Helping a pupil to select a curriculum and to make the adjustments which may be necessary thereafter is only a part of the problem of educational guidance. There is the important problem of having a pupil to educate who comes to school "ready" to accept the school's offerings and who is so oriented that he may be able to enter into his work successfully. This is the problem of *articulation*, which is the process of making several levels of the school system into a unified program in which a pupil passes from one level to another with the minimum of difficulty and discomfort.

Here is a good place to advise that graduation exercises in elementary and junior high schools be discontinued. Sometimes a diploma has the effect of convincing a pupil and his parents that he has completed his education. It also has a tendency to widen the gap between the two levels of the school program. An important function of the counselor is to assist in making this gap easy to bridge and as short as possible.

It should first be understood that guidance in transfer from a school to a higher one is important. Many a pupil

just about to leave the sixth grade for junior high school has a good deal of fear of the unknown. Thus, unless careful guidance is provided, he may enter the junior high school with erroneous ideas to what is before him, and fear of the unknown may color his attitudes for a considerable time. Hence, it is necessary to provide careful planning for his journey to his new world. The same is true in transfer to the senior high school and to schools of higher learning.

Some items important in this transfer process are

1. Knowledge of the child
2. Knowledge of the upper and lower schools by teachers, counselors, and principals of both schools
3. Acquaintance and cordial understanding among teachers of the two schools
4. Acquaintance of the pupil of the lower school with what he is about to meet in the upper school

Knowledge of the child is found largely in the cumulative record which is passed on from the lower school. The following information should be included in this record: the child's health status at present, the sicknesses he has had in the past, and his physical or mental handicaps, the standardized tests he has taken during and previous to his stay in the lower school; his scholastic record and the specific difficulties he has had therewith. This is not sufficient for the upper school. It is essential that principals and teachers of the two schools become acquainted and discuss the pupils. When the homeroom teachers of the two schools meet, a list of the pupils being transferred from one to the other should be prepared and a brief check list of important items should be considered by the two teachers. This check list should contain such items as the following:

1. Name of the pupil
2. Underage Overage
3. How long in lower school

Will the objectives in English, for instance, jump quickly from those emphasizing fundamentals to those emphasizing literature and the application of fundamentals?

It is to be hoped, of course, that teachers in all levels of the schools will have collaborated in the building of curricula and programs of study and that the pupil moving up to the higher school will find an easy transition, not only because the curriculum is well articulated but because the teachers, both above and below, understand that entering an entirely new situation is always more or less of a shock and make every possible effort to relieve that shock.

Frequently not enough importance is attached to friendly relations among teachers in different levels of the school system. There was a time when high school teachers blamed the failures of their pupils on the teachers in the lower schools. This has even been known to happen between colleges and high schools. In more progressive school systems, however, the tendency is for the teachers on the two levels to meet for the consideration of their problems. Both sides realize that cooperation is much to be preferred to castigation. The tendency now, in the better schools, is to study cooperatively the problems a pupil meets as he progresses up the educational ladder and endeavor to solve them. English teachers, for instance, are working out courses of study in which transition from one school to another offers little more difficulty than ordinary grade promotions. The same is true in science and mathematics and social science and foreign languages. In one school system, a workshop was organized in which teachers on all levels considered with much profit the problems and techniques of articulation. Such arrangements bring success and happiness to many pupils and obviate the necessity for many adjustments in the upper school.

But such curricular adjustments are likely to depend on

cordial relations between the teachers of the two schools. A liking for a person always mellows one's judgment of him and his work. Thus, parties and luncheons and dances, which the teachers from both schools attend with the intention of getting acquainted and enjoying their friends, provide a guidance activity frequently not appreciated.

Up to this time we have just been laying the groundwork for the important feature of articulation—the actual transfer of the pupils to the higher school with the least possible misadjustment. The cordial relations between the faculties of the two schools are assumed to have encouraged both to take steps to get the pupils acquainted with the new school and properly oriented in it. Principals and teachers in the lower school give pupils about to be transferred all possible information on what they are about to encounter. Handbooks from the receiving school have been handed to the principal for distribution to the prospective students. In some cases, printed folders giving requirements in the various high school curricula are distributed; principals and counselors visit the lower school, speak at assemblies, and meet individual pupils with special problems, pupils and their parents are invited to the upper school, are received by pupils and teachers, and are taken through the building by the former, special editions of the upper school newspaper containing information specially prepared for the new pupils are distributed among all the prospective pupils, the lower pupils are invited to “open house” demonstrations in the upper school so that they may see something of how the classes are conducted.

After arriving at the upper school, pupils may be assigned to “big brothers” and “big sisters,” whose function it is to give them many varieties of information, introduce them to faculty members and students, and do everything possible to make them feel at home. These “big brothers” and “big

sisters" have had previous training in which it has been emphasized that the newcomers must achieve a sense of belonging in this new environment, must make a proper approach to the several teachers under whom they will work, and as soon as possible must feel at home in a student body coming from a much wider geographical area than did their lower school companions. Receptions for the beginners are held in some schools. At this time they meet faculty members, listen to words of greeting, enjoy entertainment by older students, and have refreshments.

But only a beginning of orientation is provided in these activities. The process must continue for at least a semester in homeroom groups, in assemblies, and in orientation courses set up specifically for the purpose of getting the pupils started successfully. Suggestions for the subject matter of orientation courses are found at the end of the unit on Group Counseling. During this period of transfer and orientation, the parents of pupils may enter profitably into the picture. At some convenient time early in the semester they may be received by the faculty, made to feel at home, and learn something of the new school home of their children. They should meet the school's principal and the pupils' counselors, class advisers, and homeroom teachers, if such persons are employed in the school. If possible, also, the children should introduce their parents to all their classroom teachers. These introductions, though necessarily casual, may later be the basis for significant cooperation with the school. Some schools hold "parents' night" early in the fall semester, preferably during American Education Week, when parents may accompany their children to some classes and also visit their homerooms. At such times the principal may explain many important items to parents at brief assemblies prior to the more informal phase of the evening's program. He may tell something of the methods

of teaching employed in the school, the curricula and their purposes, the various services the school provides, such as medical, psychological, dental, etc., and may discuss the opportunities in extracurricular activities. Here he can apprise the parents of special calls upon their children's time, due to their advancement up the educational ladder.

It has been assumed above that all transfer and orientation procedures are successful. This is expecting too much. The situation cannot be perfect, and certain cases of non-adjustment will appear, some of these, perhaps, because of wrong procedures. These the school should expect and be ready to handle by remedial or reorientation techniques. It is well for the guidance committee to see that the faculty reviews periodically its success in pupil orientation, especially in the first semester. Many of these problems will be related to selection of curricula. While this may seem to be duplicating suggestions regarding *selection of curricula*, or even *diagnosis and remedial work*, it is reiterated here because of its importance.

Transfer to College and Orientation to the New School

How should pupils choose colleges and become adjusted in these institutions? After the Second World War, the selection of a college was hardly a matter of choice, because so many students wished to attend college. Students in a large number of cases entered whatever institutions they could and were thankful. However, there probably will be a time when the situation will change and the students will be actually *choosing* colleges.

A number of elements will enter the picture: the parents' college, if any, the college chosen by a good friend; the distance to the institution; whether it is a private or state institution, with free tuition in the latter case; the reputation of the institution locally, its standing with national accrediting agencies; the curricula offered, etc. Carter V. Good's

book *A Guide to Colleges, Universities and Professional Schools in the United States*,¹ is a very helpful one. It should be in the library of every high school.

Counseling a pupil on the choice of a college does not differ from counseling in other areas. The counselor does not (or should not) advise the pupil to go to any particular college but presents the facts and allows him to make his own choice. The book by Good, mentioned above, gives much valuable information. The pupil should, if possible, have chosen his future occupation and should seek a college offering the curriculum he desires. Whether he selects a particular school will depend on a number of items listed above. A useful chart in any school is one listing at the side the names of institutions and at the top certain items of information which the counselor believes should be available to pupils looking forward to college. It is suggested that only colleges most likely to be chosen by pupils in any particular school be selected. A good plan might be to choose colleges to which pupils of this school have gone within the past 5 years. Some of the items which should appear at the top are the following:

Location	Association of American
Size of town	Universities
Men only	Size
Women only	Admission requirements
Coeducational	High school certification
Public control	Examination at college
Private control	College Board Examinations
Church control (if any)	
Accredited by	Minimum cost per year
State university	Maximum cost per year
State education association	Fraternities
Regional association	Sororities

¹ Carter V. Good, *A Guide to Colleges, Universities and Professional Schools in the United States*, American Council on Education, Washington, D. C., 1945.

Tuition	Teacher training
Work opportunities	Elementary
Few	Secondary
Many	Academic
Scholarship aid	Commercial
Curricula	Home economics
Liberal arts	Music
Engineering	Physical education
Aviation	Vocational
Chemical	Guidance service
Civil	Placement service
Electrical	Physical education
Mechanical	Cooperative work-study plan
Radio	

What goes on the top side of the chart will depend partly on what the interests of the pupils are in general and partly on the standards that are accepted. The making of such a chart is an excellent project for pupils in the junior or senior year of the secondary school. The work will be valuable as a project in cooperation, and by the time a committee has finished such a chart, it will be in excellent shape to conduct a panel discussion on choosing a college, and the individual members will be able to help pupils who have not had such experience. An item before the name of each college might be a number, indicating how many have attended that college from this high school.

But just knowing how to select a college is far from enough. It is quite possible that half of those who select colleges may not be capable of completing a college course. Hence, the importance of beginning this college guidance very early in a pupil's secondary career. His success in elementary and secondary school, along with all the test results and other information in his folder, should be adequate for his counselors. If the chances of his succeeding are slight,

he should be shown the advantages of entering suitable work which does not require college education.

While the teacher should rarely, if ever, tell a pupil that he is not capable of doing college work, she can very easily present information which he can interpret without difficulty. A chart used in some schools has proved very effective. It merely shows what has happened to pupils from that school who have gone to college with high school records of various levels. An example is given below

High school record	College record			
	A	B	C	D
A	10	40	30	20
B		30	40	30
C			40	60
D				50

This chart is entirely theoretical and does not refer to any particular school. The distribution might be quite different in an actual case. However, the principle holds.

EXPLANATION: A pupil with a high school average of A has, according to records of pupils who have gone to college, the following chances in college. There are 10 chances out of 100 that he will have an average of A, 40 that he will have an average of B, 30 of C, and 20 of D. The pupil with a B high school average has 30, 40, and 30 chances that his college grades will average B, C, and D, respectively, etc. If a pupil does not believe he is to be classed in a particular category, it might be well to suggest a scholastic aptitude test. A certain large school system has discarded the

term "I Q." and uses only the term "probable learning rate" (P.L.R.). Every pupil is given his P.L.R. score and is allowed to take as many additional tests as he desires to change his P.L.R. if possible. The point is that it is dangerous to place a pupil in a certain slot and assume that he belongs there. In most cases there is little change in the P.L.R., but occasionally the difference is significant. By this means a pupil's ability to do college work is put on a basis somewhat like that of the weight lifter. He may try as often as he desires and decide for himself whether he prefers to be a professional weight lifter; but his limited success there may indicate to him that perhaps he might be more successful in some other occupation.

College entrance requirements are slowly changing. Formerly the pupil had to have a certain number of Carnegie units in English, foreign language, mathematics, science, history, etc. Today, a number of colleges have agreed to accept students without regard to subjects taken. For instance, Bucknell University sets up the following requirements.

1. Applicants for admission to the College must be graduates of an approved 4-year secondary school, or graduates of an approved senior high school
2. Applicants will be admitted to the College on the basis of individual qualifications to do college work as indicated by such criteria as
 - a. Scores on tests of the College Entrance Examination Board, including the scholastic aptitude test (required)
 - b. Preparatory school record
 - c. Rank in graduating class
 - d. Principal's recommendation

It is the writer's opinion after several years' experience as a college director of admissions that progressive college admissions officers are little concerned with the grades of

secondary school graduates. As far as ability is concerned, they prefer percentile rankings on standardized psychological and subject matter tests. Rank in class is much more significant for the admissions officer than are grades, although of less value than percentile rankings on standardized tests. These officers are, moreover, concerned about the character and personality qualities of the candidate and want a complete list of his activities in school and out.

Becoming properly adjusted after entering college will depend on a number of things. Among these are (1) whether the work in the high school has been of sufficiently high grade to prepare the pupil for the higher work, and (2) whether the pupil has been informed of the many new situations he is likely to meet.

The second condition will involve the program for informing the pupil on college activities, requirements, and customs. College catalogues, unfortunately, seldom are very helpful. Freshman handbooks, if studied thoroughly, provide very good background information. They frequently give something of the history of the institution, curricula offered, fraternities and sororities, regulations about class attendance, care of property, religious and social activities on the campus, student government, etc. High school pupils planning to enter colleges should have such information. Counsellors or librarians may well collect these materials from the colleges which the graduates of the school are most likely to enter and make them easily available to pupils. At college, the freshman is likely to be involved in an orientation program involving "Freshman Week." This usually includes lectures on "Why Go to College," "How to Study," "How to Use the Library," "Time Budgeting," etc. In some colleges, freshmen take psychological and subject matter tests and meet their counsellors or advisers at this time. They are entertained at social affairs given by upperclassmen and

at receptions at which they meet the faculty. Frequently they attach themselves to older students who help them in the process of orientation.

It should be added here that the college student's orientation which is effected by the techniques mentioned above is not the most important part of his adjustment to college life. The real orientation is what he does for himself as a thinking human being. High school counselors and teachers do well to emphasize and reemphasize the importance of the college student's observing carefully how successful people adjust themselves to the educational program and constantly criticize their own approaches. Students should be reminded that education as a process, according to Dewey, is "the reorganization and readjustment of experience, which adds to the *meaning* of experience and increases ability to direct the course of subsequent experience." They should be reminded further that they should try to fit every college experience, of no matter what type, into the mosaic of their developing education. Not until a person has learned to do this will he be living up to his possibilities as a college student.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Some educators claim that a 6-year high school should hold two assemblies, one for the first three grades and the other for the last three. If this is true, does it mean that proper articulation between the two levels has not been achieved? Explain your answer.
2. You are a member of the high school handbook committee. What items not usually found in handbooks would you add?
3. In some large school systems, supervisors work in ele-

mentary, junior high, or senior high school grades. In others, a supervisor is in charge of a single subject from elementary through secondary school grades. Last arguments for and against each plan from the standpoint of articulation.

4. Why not confine all orientation of pupils entering secondary school to "big brothers" or "big sisters"?
5. Write to a number of college admissions officers, and ask them what three things they consider most important in the admission of a secondary school graduate to college.
6. Ask for a panel discussion of the problem of college admission in a school employing the report to parents recommended in this volume.

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cause it contains comprehensive information on each of 1,700 institutions, it constitutes a noteworthy reference book. It should be available in all high schools.

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liberalized and less attention must be given to individual academic subjects. Personnel programs in both high school and college must be greatly improved.

SKEEN, BEARNICE. "No Strangers Here," *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 37, pp. 28-30, January, 1946. In Vanport City, Ore., a government housing project with 37,000 people during the war and 19,000 at the time the article was written, new pupils came to the schools each week in considerable numbers. An "orientation room" to which all new pupils went first is an interesting variation in this orientation plan. A unique scheme for meeting an unusual emergency.

The Pupil's Plan Book

A useful tool in the guidance of secondary school pupils is the so-called "pupil plan book." This book provides space on which the pupil may record his present status, his ambitions, and his plans for education and vocation. It should be started when the pupil enters secondary school, and it should be revised at least twice a year. A plan book providing for 4 years of secondary school work may require as little as 8 or 16 pages. When the pupil has filled out his plan book, he may hand it to his homeroom teacher or counselor, to be filed until he wishes to make changes in it.

Making the plan book may be an activity of unusual value. A committee of pupils in a homeroom may take over the problem and invite the cooperation of other members of the group. A request for suggestions as to what should be included may bring proposals from every pupil in the room. Committee and group discussions of the purposes and techniques may have motivating values not likely to be developed in any other manner.

The plan book may have pages of two widths, the title or guide page being twice as wide as the remaining ones, thus

making it necessary to write the items only once. Each narrow page may be ruled and dated and items listed as on the first page. While the plan book should be kept in the pupil's cumulative folder, it should be available to him at any time.

The diagram illustrates a pupil's plan book. It features a main page with several sections for planning and a narrow, angled 'Notes' page that can be inserted into the main page.

Main Page Sections:

- My name _____
- Address _____
- Curriculum _____
- Present class schedule _____
- Program changes planned for next semester _____
- Vocational plans _____
- Educational plans _____
- Clubs I now belong to _____
- Other school activities _____
- School offices I now hold _____
- Athletics now engaged in _____
- Letters already earned _____
- Creative work I am now doing _____
- Weaknesses I am now correcting or planning to correct _____

Notes Page:

The 'Notes' page is a narrow, angled strip that can be inserted into the main page. It has a header 'Notes' and a date field 'Date _____'. Below the date field is a grid for tracking progress, with columns labeled 'M', 'T', 'W', 'T', 'F' and rows for each day of the week.

Some suggestions as to the form and contents of a plan book follow, but these should be considered as suggestions only, and such a book in any school should be developed according to the wishes of the teacher and pupils.

Vocational Guidance

Rich man, poor man, beggar man, thief.
Doctor, lawyer, Indian chief.

This familiar jingle used by children at play might adequately express the vocational knowledge of many high school pupils on their graduation day. For many a high school graduate has faced the future with little idea of how he can fit into the world of work or what jobs are available there. Therefore, bewildered by the strangeness and immensity of the life that confronts him after graduation, he may follow the path of least resistance to the job at hand whether or not he is interested in doing it or is equipped for it. Too many times he has been exposed to the theory that only people with white-collar jobs are respected and considered successful. If the job he has involves manual labor, he immediately places himself in what he considers the "lower class." Somewhere along the line he was not taught the dignity and worth of all useful labor. Life for him becomes humdrum and without challenge. The future seems to hold nothing by way of happiness. He becomes a

frustrated individual, and his living is meaningless and colorless.

It seems, then, that a first objective for an effective vocational guidance program in any school should be to help boys and girls to develop a respect for all useful labor and for those who perform it. The world of today is a very complex world. So many people of all races and creeds contribute to the living of their fellows that the school can ill afford to neglect this important phase of the guidance function. For too long a time the school has used the lure of white-collar jobs as a means of prodding boys and girls to do good work in school with the result that many young people early in life have developed an inferior feeling when they have found themselves in other fields of endeavor. If work is worth while and necessary for the life of people, it is honorable; and the worker who does his work well is worthy of the respect of all his fellows. The school more than any other agency outside the home can teach this respect, and it becomes the first imperative of an adequate vocational guidance program.

The foregoing should not be interpreted as countenancing the tendency in too many schools to delegate certain groups of individuals because of race, color, or creed to certain types of menial tasks regardless of their abilities or vocational interests. If the school is to help in perpetuating the American way of life, it must help to break down such unfair practices both by helping children of the majority groups to accept members of minority groups as coworkers and by helping children of minority groups to recognize their own worth and accept the challenge to contribute to the economic emancipation of their groups.

The shortage of workers during the Second World War tended to push into the background the second objective of the school guidance program—to help pupils discover,

adopt, and have practice in the principles of careful, efficient work. During those years when jobs were so plentiful and workers so few, what counselor of high school boys and girls did not hear over and over the statement that many of the ideals held before youth were foolish? On one occasion a boy of 15 was referred by his counselor to an employer. The boy needed to work to help support his sick mother. In talking with him, the counselor tried to give the boy some suggestions on how to apply for a job. Among other things she suggested that he comb his hair neatly, wear clean clothes, etc. The boy's reply was a smile and a statement to the effect that that wasn't necessary any more. He could get the kind of job he wanted by going just as he was. This attitude was to be expected of children who had no background of experience against which to weigh their judgment.

Today, the story is different. Work is becoming increasingly hard to find. Employers are looking for more mature and better trained workers. Shoddy work is no longer acceptable, and young people will need a great deal of understanding and guidance if some of them are to rebuild their work habits and others are to build acceptable ones.

In the third place, an effective vocational guidance program will help pupils to discover and evaluate the variety and types of work that contribute to present-day living. If the attainment of this objective is pursued with understanding and sympathy, the first objective mentioned in this chapter will almost take care of itself. For young people can hardly discover their dependence on others without acquiring a respect for them. Moreover, such an enterprise acquaints the pupil with the vast number of possibilities from which he, too, can choose a career. It affords an opportunity for discussion of the need for planning a career.

Too much emphasis cannot be placed on the importance

of helping youth to build a set of worth-while objectives. It is dealt with at more length in another unit. It should be repeated here that unless the school is able to help boys and girls set goals for themselves, it is unfair to expect them to apply themselves in school.

It has been pointed out by Foinwalt that there are two deficiencies which seem to be characteristic of delinquent boys. One of these is the lack of worth-while friends, and the other is a lack of worth-while objectives. The case of Dan is a good example. Dan was a handsome boy of 16, a member of a minority group. The going had been difficult for Dan. His childhood had been full of danger, anxiety, and insecurity. There had been the digging up of roots in one place and the accompanying task of learning to feel at home in another city, there had been a period when neither his parents nor his teachers understood his problem, and there followed the rather frequent pattern of aggressive behavior; then there had been rather stringent disciplinary measures. A couple of years later Dan found himself with an opportunity to make a fresh start.

Dan's ability to learn school subjects was quite limited, but he tried hard and earned for himself, through effort, the right to advance with those of his own age group. But someone told him that he really hadn't earned his advancement. He was "dumb." He was getting so old that they had to do something to get him out of school. When he went to the counselor after hearing this, he was bitter and resentful. He didn't want life to give him things. He wanted to earn them. And now that he knew the truth, nothing mattered any more.

The counselor knew that Dan could never enter a profession. She had felt that Dan was headed toward the time when they would have to face this problem together. She had had some tests made with the hope that Dan could be

helped to plan a career in accordance with his ability and yet one that would be a challenge to him. As the boy sat there and the counselor said that she realized how he must feel, she knew that the school had waited too long. If somehow 2 or 3 years ago Dan could have been helped to find challenge and thrill in preparing for a career that would be possible for him, how different his picture would have been. He was not hopeless. The counselor had reason to hope that in his next visit Dan could be helped to face his situation frankly, but the road would be more difficult.

Perhaps the school has neglected this phase of its work because it is difficult to tell the truth to those of limited abilities. Perhaps this is because those who belong to a professional group find it difficult to believe that happiness can be found in other types of work. And yet, one has but to observe those with whom one comes in contact every day to find that there is joy in living and adventurous living in most work, if the worker will but find it there. Moreover, that happiness comes through a sense of achievement which is impossible when a person has been placed in a job overtaxing his abilities. The vocational counselor, then, must be willing and able to look up and out with the pupil, no matter what his abilities or his handicaps.

In the fourth place, the school which would do effective vocational counseling will help boys and girls build those traits of character conducive to successful careers and happy living. A poorly adjusted person cannot be a good worker no matter what vocational assets he may have. If an individual is seeing his job through a screen of emotional conflict, he can hardly be expected to do his best work. It is encouraging to note that many schools are devoting more and more time to a study of the simple mental hygiene rules in an effort to help young people resolve emotional con-

flits. The person who starts on a job must have a wholesome attitude and a hopeful outlook if he is to be successful. To help him to face the realities of the job, and of life generally, with courage and hope is part of the task of education and more especially the task of the vocational guidance program of the school.

Then, too, the person who would be efficient and happy in his job must be fortified by a wholesome out-of-work experience. No longer can the school be satisfied when it has turned out individuals who are efficient in certain skills. It has been proved that recreational leisure-time pursuits contribute largely to the efficiency and productivity of the working day. It would seem, therefore, that the adequate vocational guidance program would also make some provision for avocational interests and that the school would give some training in these.

Although many schools at the present time lack the personnel necessary, wherever it is possible a carefully devised plan of follow-up should be instituted. This is especially true when the pupil leaves high school and goes immediately to a job. The sympathetic interest and understanding of a teacher or counselor mean a great deal to these young people who are trying their wings in the largeness of the world of work.

There has been a great deal of discussion as to where in the school experience the vocational guidance program should begin. It is the feeling of the authors of this book that it should begin when the child starts school. The people in his school experience who are contributing to his life are workers, and he can learn to appreciate their efforts in his behalf. The school has ample opportunity to explore with him the origins of the clothes he wears, the food he eats, and the comforts he enjoys. One second-grade group became interested in the story of milk and butter. They visited a

farm. They found out what the tasks of the farmer and his wife were. They watched the milking being done. They took back to school some cream from the farm and made butter. They made some fruit preserves like the ones the farmer's wife was making the day of their visit. They enjoyed the things they made. They built a farm which had a farmer and a farmer's wife living in the farmhouse. Not only did these children learn much about what goes on at the farm but they experienced a sense of kinship with these keepers of their health when they, too, for a short while helped to provide food for their class. Work habits are formed in the first grade and strengthened all through the school experience. Likewise, character is in the process of growth from the birth of the individual, and each year in school should contribute directly to it.

It would seem, then, that an opportunity for discoveries in various occupational areas should be provided throughout the school curriculum. The discussion that follows, however, will pay particular attention to its development in the secondary school. Schools are using many different approaches successfully. Some of the methods that have been found most practical and helpful for the small school are discussed here, as well as the story of how one teacher organized a vocational guidance program in the ninth-grade social studies class.

The principal was having a meeting with the ninth grade. They were completing their work in the junior high school and were confronted with the task of selecting their senior high school courses. The expressions on their faces, as they sat staring at the roster of possibilities, presented a study in pathos. Some looked dazed, bewildered, some were excited at the large list of possibilities. Questions such as these arose: "How do we decide what we are going to take?" "Which one of these courses is for me?" The principal pa-

tiently explained that it depended on what the pupil wanted to do when he was through school. Few of the group had settled that question for themselves. As she watched the bewilderment of these pupils of hers, the ninth-grade sponsor determined that another group would not come to such a meeting unprepared.

Immediately she began to collect materials. She made a list of books that might be bought for the school library. She examined magazines of all kinds to find offers of free materials on various occupations, and sent for them. This plan afforded a wealth of good materials.

September arrived. The teacher planned to do her work in occupations as a prelude to the visit of the principal and the planning of senior high school curricula. There were the materials. There were the pupils. Certainly they could learn a lot about occupations from the data assembled. Then conversations with her pupils set the teacher wondering.

There was Jane. Jane wasn't getting along very well in school. She was bright enough, but she had no interest in what was going on about her. She did not enjoy the association with her classmates, and spent much of her time alone. It was hard for Jane to know what she was really interested in doing after she had finished school.

Then there was Mildred. Mildred had lived a fairly well-protected life, although she had had a few work experiences. As I Q's go, hers was very high. Her achievement in school, however, was not compatible with her ability. Her manner was careless, her work careless, and her appearance was careless. It had never occurred to her, she said, to think about what she would do when she was through school.

Cases multiplied. The teacher decided that before she tried to help boys and girls learn something about occupations she should help them to discover their vocational interests. She secured the Kuder Preference Record. After

she had studied a number of such inventories, the teacher decided upon that one because it seemed that the boys and girls would enjoy taking the test. They could score it themselves and get a lot of joy from recording their scores and working out their own profiles. It would be possible for the teacher to help the pupils interpret their scores in a group. The teacher also liked the philosophy underlying the construction of the Kuder test. If the school had not been able to purchase it, the teacher would probably have used the inventory offered by Germane and Germane in *Personnel Work in High School*, which they have so generously given teachers the privilege of copying for use in their classes.

The preference record gave the pupils scores in nine major areas of vocational interest—mechanical, persuasive, computational, scientific, literary, musical, artistic, social service, and clerical. A pamphlet of directions gave the teacher a group of occupations listed within each of these areas. Since there wasn't time for each pupil to learn the details regarding many occupations, the pupils were asked to obtain a general idea of the field and to study carefully an occupation of their own choice in the area of their highest measured interest.

The classroom became a beehive of activity. All the library materials except encyclopedias were brought into the classroom. Charts of various kinds were placed on the walls. The bulletin board carried items of interest in the vocational field. Several days were devoted to browsing in the library in search of information on the specified occupation. Strange what curious turns the interests of these boys and girls took! Plentiful as the material seemed to be, there was much to be desired. A lesson in letter writing became necessary. If the material he needed wasn't there, the pupil

had to find it. Some of the most interesting materials of the department were those discovered by the pupils and bequeathed for the use of the classes to follow. A variety of classroom activities was engaged in, and there were many interesting and helpful visits with those successful in various fields.

To guide them in their study, the teacher and pupils worked out an outline. The outline was used as a basis for a written report and for an oral report to the class. The system of oral reports helped the class become acquainted with vocations they had not had time to study. Many conferences were held with individual pupils to help them interpret their scores on the preference record. The reports were placed in notebooks that were made for the purpose in the art class, and each gave some indication of the contents.

A small percentage of these ninth-grade pupils found that their vocational interests had not developed to the point where they were outstanding on the profile. These had to be counseled with, because there was a tendency on their part to feel "inferior" or poorly developed. When these same people took the inventory in the eleventh grade, all had decided vocational interests as measured on the same test.

As the teacher reviewed the work of 2 months, she felt that the pupils were much better prepared to make an intelligent choice of senior high school curricula than they would have been otherwise. They had become conscious of the world of work, of some of its opportunities and some of its requirements. They had learned to study more effectively and had become more resourceful as a result of it. They had had some purposeful experience in sharing their findings with their classmates. The enterprise had afforded opportunities for correlation on the work of the art and social studies departments. The teacher saw that there

could be numerous opportunities to correlate the work of the social studies and English departments.

She realized that the enterprise as conducted had omitted entirely a study of measured aptitudes. There were two reasons for this. In the first place, the school was too small to afford a battery of good aptitude tests. In the second place, the teacher was carrying a full teaching schedule and did not have the time required for such testing. She did not ignore the importance of this phase of vocational guidance with the pupils. One session was spent in explanation of the importance of aptitudes in the selection of a vocation. She told the group of the services of a nearby university in the field of aptitude testing.

There was a period of a few days when many members of the group were waiting for the arrival of materials. During this time, the teacher studied with the pupils *Your High School Record—Does it Count?*¹ The photographed copies of actual letters from business firms did much to impress the pupils with the seriousness of the whole project and stimulated much creative thinking within the group.

As has been suggested, some of the ninth-grade pupils did not have clearly defined vocational interests as measured on the Kuder Preference Record. To help these pupils and to allow others to check for any change in vocational interest, the blank was administered again in the eleventh grade. By the time this grade has been reached, the world of work is much more imminent; many pupils have had some first-hand experience in one or more occupations, there is still time to readjust their schedules to take a course that they find they are going to need. This is a good time also (a better time than on the ninth-grade level) to investigate schools and to take advantage of summer work opportunities as

¹ Robert D. Falk, *Your High School Record—Does It Count?* rev. ed., South Dakota Press, Pierre, S. D., 1942.

a laboratory experience in a chosen field. Harry followed such a procedure. He had always wanted to be a mechanical engineer or a doctor. He couldn't decide which. The Kuder profile indicated a high interest in both fields. Aptitude tests administered by a university student as he finished the eleventh grade indicated that Harry would be successful in either field. He had the opportunity to work with machinery during that summer and that experience helped him to choose medicine. Joan volunteered as a nurses' aide and through this experience was assured she had chosen a profession to her liking.

The procedure described above was carried on as part of the work in the social studies department. Vocational guidance, even though it receives its emphasis in one particular department, should not be limited to that department. There is ample opportunity in every field to introduce this material. It does seem necessary, however, that some one member of the faculty, or a faculty committee in larger schools, should specialize in vocational guidance. Such a person has many duties. He should become a member of the National Vocational Guidance Association and be active in its local branch; he should read as much in the field as possible and be ready to suggest materials for the library and classroom; he should organize a placement service and do as much of the follow-up as is possible.

While these special tasks should be assigned to one person who is especially interested in this phase of the guidance program, it is to be hoped that teachers in every field will vitalize the curriculum by making some contribution toward the vocational adjustment of the pupils. Every teacher of every subject, if he is thoroughly interested in the contribution his subject can make, can assist in the vocational guidance program of the school. The English teacher will find that his subject contributes directly to the training of the

journalist, advertiser, editor, proofreader, poet, novelist, teacher of English, actor, lawyer, minister, radio announcer, and, in fact, to the training of every person who in the course of a day must be able to express himself, who must get along well with coworkers. The difficulty lies not in listing vocations to which subjects contribute directly but to determine what opportunities a particular subject field affords for developing the objectives of the program. Perhaps this can best be done through conferences of members of one department and then pooling the findings of all departments.

In Cincinnati, Ohio, the teacher is held responsible for integrating the occupational materials with the regular program of studies. It has been found that an understanding of community and church interests is necessary. For example, an eighth-grade class carried out a project known as "Interdependence of Workers," centering about the machine-shop worker and involving his dependence on persons in nine different fields represented in the United States census. The project was a cooperative one, persons representing the nine fields being organized as committees responsible for gathering occupational information, after an analysis of the machine-shop worker's duties. A miniature community was constructed, representing a life-size machine-shop worker towering over the many workers who contributed to his success in the community. All the regular school subjects were involved in the development of the project, and perforce pupils became acquainted with many types of work through this relationship. The project was later presented to outside audiences.

Many schools are making more and more use of excellent films that are available, of records describing occupations, and of visits to the school by persons who are able to present their own occupations in interesting fashion to the boys and girls. In many schools, the career conference has become an

important part of the study of occupations. Leaders in various occupational fields are invited to participate. Meetings of the total group are followed by meetings of interest groups where the guest leaders serve as resource persons and frequently lead the discussion. It should be emphasized, however, that the career conference is only one of many phases of a comprehensive vocational guidance program.

Another approach that seems to be gaining favor although it is too expensive for many children is the 3- or 4-day summer camp. In these camps, high school boys and girls are given complete batteries of tests and a counseling service is available to help them plan their careers.

In some states, the state employment service has developed a plan whereby specially trained youth interviewers are made available to young people leaving school to go to work. Interest and aptitude tests are given and a counseling conference is held prior to placement on a job. Some industries offer a similar service to prospective employees.

Some schools have found it helpful to have each teacher become a specialist in a given occupational area. She collects materials, plans assembly programs around the occupations in her area, and holds individual conferences with pupils interested in her particular field. Charts which indicate qualifications for particular jobs within a job area are helpful devices in pupil counseling.

Methods will vary with each school because each school will try to meet its own special needs and will use the resources peculiar to its own community. And in each community where the school has the will, it will find the way to the effective guidance of youth in this all-important area.

CAREER BOOK

1. Brief history of the occupation
2. Divisions and types of jobs
3. Qualifications needed to enter the occupation

4. How my personal qualities measure up
 - a.* Kuder Preference Record
 - b.* Schoolwork
 - c.* Personality
5. Advantages
 - a.* To employee
 - b.* To society
6. Disadvantages
7. Range of earnings—rewards other than financial
8. Hours of work—regularity of employment
9. Demand and supply of workers
 - a.* In wartime
 - b.* In peacetime
10. Training needed for different types of jobs
 - a.* Places where training can be secured
 - b.* Cost of training and means of financing it
11. Policies of employers regarding
 - a.* Organized labor
 - b.* Kinds of people employed
 - c.* Retirement
 - d.* Sick benefits
 - e.* Vacations
12. Report of interview with someone in this field of work
 - a.* Points covered during the interview
 - b.* Personal observations made about working conditions, nationalities, and attitudes of workers
13. How to look for a job and how to proceed in getting a job
14. Chances for advancement
15. What to read about this occupation
16. My educational plans for senior high school

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Select one of the occupational areas measured in the Kuder Preference Record. Make a chart on which you indicate the types of jobs within the area, along with educational and personality requirements.

2. Collect free materials that will be useful to the pupils as they explore this area.
3. List the names of persons successful in this area whom you might call upon to participate in a career conference.
4. List recordings and motion pictures that are available in this area. Where can they be procured and what is their cost?
5. Plan three assembly programs in which you would interpret this occupational area to the pupils.
6. Evaluate the program of vocational guidance in your school as to testing, counseling, job placement, and follow-up. Make suggestions for improving it or for using what you now have to better advantage.

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HELPFUL MATERIALS FOR USE IN THE VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE PROGRAM

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Saturday Evening Post, Philadelphia

School and College Placement, Association of School and College Placement, Philadelphia.

Scholastic, New York.

GUIDANCE AGENCIES

National Vocational Guidance Association.

Occupational Information and Guidance Service, U S Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

The state employment service in your state capital

Veterans Administration Guidance Centers. Find out where they are located

Organizations which will gladly furnish valuable guidance information are Boy Scouts of America, Girl Scouts, Kiwanis International, Lions International, and Rotary International.

OCCUPATIONAL FILES

A well-organized system of filing occupational information should be found in every secondary school. Occupational clippings, photographs, leaflets, and even dissected chap-

ters of books are filed for immediate and future use. Probably an alphabetical plan will be most useful for younger pupils. For more elaborate plans, see below.

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Guidance Through Extracurricular Activities

Lucy Brown entered high school at the age of 13. Her I Q. was somewhat over 130. Both of her parents were intelligent college graduates. She entered the ninth grade with hopeful enthusiasm, thrilled beyond measure to have done with a school that offered only regular subjects and a smattering of unsupervised athletics. And what was she, with her eager enthusiasm and her own individual personal problems, offered? A standardized curriculum, standardized examinations, exposure to facts and tests to see if the pupils could retain them for as long as 6 weeks. However, the novelty of a year in a larger school kept up her enthusiasm during the first semester of the ninth grade. She was disappointed occasionally by the dearth of challenge and the lack of opportunity to get into things, and then she was again the happy, hopeful youth looking over the hill into the wonderful tomorrow.

Nothing much happened during the second semester. She was not a leader, and was so modest about asserting herself

that she was hardly a good follower. She was usually on the honor roll in her classes but was near the lower limit for that distinction. Early in her sophomore year she fell from the honor roll and to the concern of her parents did not seem to care. Her replies when they mentioned her scholarship were that she was tired of sitting in those old, dull classrooms, hearing the teachers talk. In class she began to ask questions, which in some cases the teachers could not answer. And she seemed to get a modicum of malicious delight out of their discomfiture. Her report card continued above average but indicated accomplishment much below her ability.

That summer she went to a girls' camp for 2 weeks and for the first time encountered a challenge, an opportunity to do things. Her shoulders snapped back and she shifted to high gear. No outdoor game was too strenuous for her; the period in the swimming pool was far too short. She joined the nature study group and in delightful trips over hill and stream learned eagerly about plant and animal life. She learned to weave. She spent fascinating hours on the archery field, she learned how to lay outdoor fires that would defy wind and weather. She assisted in the camp library, and helped in the dining pavilion. She received the coveted badge of "good camper." She was almost heartbroken when her parents came and took her home at the end of the camping period. The next 2 weeks were spent in preparation for school, and she went into her junior year sans vision or enthusiasm of any kind. She was like the small boy caught in the garage, dressing for the swimming pool, who is sent forthwith to Sunday school.

The following summer, for lack of something more interesting to do, Lucy enrolled in a summer demonstration school held in connection with a teacher-training institution. The principal of this school was a progressive educator, and in order to ensure a modicum of real education for his pupils

he saw to it that a variety of activities was shortly under way. Since Lucy was not looking for additional credit and was in school only for the "fun," if such a thing could be found in school, she presented herself for whatever activities she might enter. Being fairly good in English, she became editor of the *Summer Session Echo*. Here again she found something to do, something along the line of her interest. She had practically entire charge of the editorial policy, since the teacher-sponsor was very busy—and wise. Also, she worked hand in hand with the business manager and, when the paper threatened to go into bankruptcy, worked out with him a clever scheme for raising money. This involved meeting a number of businessmen, which was particularly hard work for her. But the job had to be done or the paper would be a failure. Those two planned, executed their plan, and enjoyed the result. Lucy was chosen for a part in the play that was given at the end of the session. Significantly, when the girls left town for camp 2 weeks before the end of the summer session, Lucy elected to stay in the school, regardless of the fact that she was free to go if she cared to. School, she had found, packed a challenge.

Into a junior high school in the Middle West came Arthur Thompson, tall, good-looking, American, and 15 years old. He lived with his mother and stepfather, and it was learned that a settled animosity existed between the boy and his mother's second husband. Within a few days, an understanding homeroom teacher realized that unless Arthur were given some worth-while responsibility, the history, English, and mathematics classes were likely to lose out in their attempts to educate him. The evidences of his leadership ability were observed, and before long he found himself chief of the school traffic system. For 8 of the 9½ months of the school term he performed the many special activities and carried the responsibilities incident to the position. At

the end of the year, when "Recognition Day" came, at which time 80 per cent of the pupils of the school received recognition for some definite accomplishment, he walked to the platform and received his special honor. He had had something to do throughout the year. He had been happy, wholesomely occupied, and had therefore presented to the school no discipline problem. Within a month after the close of the school term in June, having nothing worth while to hold his interest and engage his activities, he became involved in a prank that sent him to the state school for boys for 1 year. At the end of this period, he was given a position which challenged his capacities. At the last report he was a successful man.

In another junior high school, the principal was surprised one day to be presented with a copy of a newspaper written in longhand and containing only two types of material. Charles Swank contributed poetry of no mean quality, and Bela Rebacki decorated the sheet with cartoons. They had little opportunity to "do their stuff" in the regular classes, and since the school newspaper appeared only once a month, their craving for activity of their peculiar types could not be satisfied there. What should that principal have done with that ambitious sheet?

In an overflowing high school in the city of X, where the teachers lacked time for the coaching of plays, a group of pupils under the leadership of one of some experience organized a dramatic club and with only infrequent suggestions from faculty members produced plays of passing quality. They not only produced plays; they gained experience in purposing, planning, executing, and judging, as Dr. Kilpatrick would say. They learned not only leadership but followership. Was this project of less educational value for those pupils than a regular class in Latin, geometry, or ancient history? In a junior high school in Cleveland it was

found that truants had more general information than had the average pupil in the school. They lived lives of activity, met problems that were vital to them, and had little time for canned information of the stereotyped school.

Eddie R. was the son of a widow in a Western mining camp. He and his mother had met life in the raw until he was 14 years old and a sophomore in high school. We have never met a high school pupil who could go more directly to a point or solve a practical problem with more success. Our high school boys and girls need to come more in contact with life problems that directly concern them and engage their interest.

In our present overcrowded schools, it is not only the dull, inactive pupil who is suffering from lack of attention, nor yet is it only that big majority medium group. It is the keener minded, restless boys and girls who, given the proper stimulus and opportunity to develop, will become the sorely needed business, political, and ethical leaders of tomorrow.

Schools that are well organized for extracurricular activities have few discipline problems. The boys and girls are too busy meeting practical situations to waste time annoying the teachers or their schoolmates. Indeed, we find a number of them who deal unkindly with pupils who have been slow in falling into the procession to real life. A transfer pupil came to one such school and started the old game of tying out his various teachers. He was forthwith called into a student government group and informed that "in this school that kid stuff is out."

Many boys and girls would be better off out of school, with freedom to plan and execute under the guidance of some wise adult and with opportunity to associate with their fellows in interesting activities, than they are gnawing at the dry bones offered in our traditional high school curriculum. Burnham's three requirements for an integrated personality,

"a task, a plan, and freedom," will live in professional history, along with Biggs' classic statement "The high school should teach boys and girls to do better the desirable things they are likely to do anyhow." With these two statements alone the curriculum maker is well on his way to a high school that educates.

The new curriculum must be one that gives more time to activity and less to passivity; more time to creative consideration of today and tomorrow and less to worship of yesterday and the day before. Curriculum makers should go out into life to find out what is happening, and then, with the courage of conviction, they should prune out the dead wood of the past and graft new to make an activities program which will challenge our children into habits of constructive struggle with problems that are to them important.

What are the possible contributions of extracurricular activities to the pupils in our public schools? According to R. D. Russell's¹ study of the opinions on clubs held by school administrators in four northwestern states, the biggest contributions are in responsibility, leadership, social graces, citizenship training, enthusiasm, good scholarship, interest and loyalty to the school, development of cooperation and harmony, and increased interest in desirable leisure-time activities. The chief disadvantages are that clubs make cliques; they take time from pupils, there is a lack of faculty advisers and competent instructors for the clubs; objective programs are lacking. The advantages, according to these administrators, far outweigh the disadvantages.

Too often extracurricular activities have not been considered by principals as desirable phases of a school program, and rather as a relaxation from regular school assignments than as a vital and indispensable phase of the education of

¹ R. D. Russell, "What Benefits Do Pupils Derive from School Clubs?" *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 7, pp. 35-40, March, 1931.

young people. Probably more often they have overlooked the many opportunities for guidance of individual pupils. These activities can be useful in the areas of personality development, occupational exploration, leadership and followership training, guidance in the use of leisure time, guidance in vocational choice, guidance in work habits, and health guidance.

Some will say that there is no difference between extracurricular activities as extracurricular activities and extracurricular activities as an avenue for guidance. The difference lies in the increased concern for the personality of the pupil for making the adjustments which will encourage him to direct his growth in the channels which appear to be most promising. Many a pupil has engaged in a number of extracurricular activities during his high school course without ever having their many possibilities called to his attention. In fact, many a pupil has never realized that extracurricular activities have possibilities in so many directions for his personal development.

Burnham's famous statement quoted above emphasizes the mental hygiene contribution of extracurricular activities. According to him the integrated personality has "a task, a plan, and freedom." In the first item it varies not much from the ordinary classroom situation where the pupil is assigned a task to perform. The situation usually differs greatly in that in the extracurricular activities the pupil is likely to choose his own task, whereas in the usual class situation the assignment of a task is made by the teacher. The intelligent adult need not be reminded of the difference in pupil attitude in the two situations. The writer well remembers the times when as a boy he had two kinds of assignments when his father left the farm for a day. In one case, he was told to do some specific job. In the other, he was told that he might select something that needed doing and do it if he

"had a mind to." It is not necessary to tell how the amounts and qualities of work differed.

While not all extracurricular activities may be said to meet Burnham's three requirements, they approach the ideal. Each extracurricular activity certainly provides a task; planning is frequently present; and almost always a considerable amount of freedom. Seldom does a school make extracurricular activities required, and a student is usually free to choose the activity he likes best. These very criteria of extracurricular activities stamp them as of significant value in guidance. Guidance is hardly guidance if it contains much that is compulsory. In the early days of the movement, it was believed that no one having authority over a pupil could be a successful counselor. Some experts today maintain this attitude, Carl Rogers being its outstanding advocate. However, the movement today is strongly toward guidance by classroom and homeroom teachers. If this is right, perhaps Rogers and some others are wrong. However, they may both be right. Certainly there should be a minimum of direction in any guidance program. The purpose of such a program is to help the pupil to be able to direct his own life.

Nowhere is this truer than in the selection of a vocation or an avocation. The pupil should generally have a free choice, with the teacher or counselor simply seeing that he has the proper information and criteria for evaluating it. The teacher seldom says, "You ought to do this." He says, rather, "Persons with your talents seem to succeed in this general field." Or, "Statistics show that . . . per cent of people of your ability succeed in present-day colleges."

Extracurricular activities provide an excellent exploratory situation. Ordinarily a pupil is permitted to change his activities fairly frequently. The pupil who finds he is not

interested in some activity he has chosen is permitted to make another choice. This may be an activity already in operation or one which grows out of the interests of a number of pupils. This, too, may not have the drawing power he had anticipated, and again he may switch to something else. Finally, he may become connected with some activity that he will want to follow for a long time as either a vocation or avocation.

Discovering whether a pupil has leadership qualities and giving him training in this area are often functions of extracurricular activities. Leading a school club or other organization, getting classmates, teachers, principals, or outside persons to cooperate with him, obtaining election to school offices and performing their functions—all these are guidance and training opportunities rarely available in regular classroom situations. Through extracurricular activities, pupils learn the importance of electing good leaders; ascertain the qualities needed for leaders; learn the techniques of selecting leaders and the responsibilities of every good citizen in this connection; determine when an elected official has performed his task successfully or has failed, learn and practice techniques of keeping leaders close to the objectives for which they were elected. One might extend the list, but in any case he will discover that the chances for success are greater in extracurricular activities.

In the area of leisure-time guidance there are unlimited opportunities in extracurricular activities. While teachers may do much to emphasize the need for and techniques of leisure-time guidance, they are less likely to do this in class situations than in a relaxed atmosphere of extracurricular activities. Furthermore, the practice rather than the precept is important, and extracurricular activities provide it in a natural setting. It is scarcely necessary at this point to

emphasize the importance to a pupil's personality of the way he uses his leisure. The speed of development of atomic energy and other almost equally phenomenal discoveries presage an early date when machinery will enter much more into almost all lines of work and the working day will be accordingly shortened.

Guidance in preserving a pupil's health is one of the functions that a program of extracurricular activities can perform. His mental health will be improved and ensured by Burnham's prescription of "a task, a plan, and freedom." Since he can choose his activity, he is likely to be able to achieve real success in something, a requisite for mental health. His physical health can be promoted by (1) mental health, and (2) physical activities, satisfying at the time and adaptable to practice over a long period of years. These can be developed in a program of extracurricular activities.

One might add to the benefits of extracurricular activities in a guidance program, but no one person could imagine all the possibilities. These will develop as interested, alert, creative teachers search for activities that will function in the all-round development of individual personalities.

The chief need seems to be for teachers and administrators who are able to see the almost limitless possibilities and who place such activities definitely into the guidance program. When our educational system is well organized and effective, the record of extracurricular activities in the permanent record folder will be considered as important as the pupil's scholastic record, and it will be as carefully kept.

Finally, it may be well to remind teachers of the tendency to put into school subjects many activities which were formerly considered extracurricular. A caution here is that if they are to function best they must retain the challenge of choice, planning, and freedom from too much teacher dictation.

What Activities?

There are many activities with which school people are familiar: musical, athletic; literary, artistic; vocational, such as agriculture, commercial, mechanical, etc. Then there are those connected with academic subjects, such as foreign languages, mathematics, sociology, science, English, history, and journalism. The above list may be helpful but should be only suggestive to creative teachers, who will see possibilities in some of their own interests for activities which have not yet been heard of. For every teacher should have a hobby and should be constantly looking for guidance possibilities for her pupils.

How shall extracurricular activities be organized? There is no definitive answer to this question. A few suggestions follow. Various schools have all extracurricular activities controlled by the student senate, by a committee of teachers and pupils, or by a committee of teachers alone. In certain schools, a director of extracurricular activities is appointed by the principal. It is conceivable that the program might well be controlled by the curriculum committee of the school. Whatever the organization, some kind of direction is necessary. Time for such activities is always a problem. The most satisfactory arrangement in many schools is that in which one period a day is free for activities. One or two of these periods in any week are given to assemblies, one is given to clubs, one is given to homeroom activities, and the other period or periods are available for counseling and many activities of interest to pupils and teachers.

A few pertinent questions will be asked. Among these are the following: How to determine what activities shall be included in the program? A reasonable principle here is that the extracurricular activities program should include all possible desirable educational activities not included in the regular program of studies. In most schools, assemblies,

student government, musical, and athletic organizations are still considered extracurricular. This is true of clubs and other societies.

A second question relates to the participation by pupils in such activities. Shall all pupils participate? This question brings us back to the guidance program. Does participation in one or more extracurricular activities seem to be the answer for a particular pupil? If the pupil's counselor has a relatively complete picture of his life in school and out, this picture should be before the counselor in advising the pupil. Likewise, when the problem of how many activities a pupil may engage in comes up, it should be settled after examination of his record in the cumulative folder. Two statements can be made with some finality: (1) No pupil should be allowed, because of his popularity, to hold a monopoly of leadership positions. In some schools this is handled through a point system, various activities carrying certain points. Membership calls for a certain number of points, minor offices more points, and major offices additional points. However, in any such system, a brake should be placed on the custom prevalent in some places of allowing outstanding pupils to hold a number of presidencies at one time. (2) The other statement relates to compulsion. There may be an instance, now and then, where a pupil should be compelled to engage in some activity that is related to his interests. This, however, should be a rare situation. A general principle is that there must be no compulsion in such activities. Freedom has been emphasized earlier in this unit.

A third question relates to how often a pupil should change activities. One of the most important contributions of extracurricular activities is the opportunity they provide the pupil for exploration of vocational and avocational fields.

This will not be real exploration unless it provides a variety of experiences. Hence, opportunity to change frequently—certainly every semester—is necessary.

Finally, the individual extracurricular activities must have sponsors. How shall they be chosen? This is a delicate matter. Pupils may choose activities or sponsors. The former is, of course, preferable. The better plan is to offer a number of activities which pupils may choose, regardless of sponsors. There will also be clubs that will grow up around certain individuals in the faculty. These should be successful and are frequently relatively permanent.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Make a list of all activities now operative in your school which should be classed as extracurricular.
2. Set up a plan for some kind of organizational arrangement for extracurricular activities. Under this provide for the following: (a) Choice of activities by pupils, (b) Choice of sponsors, (c) Length of time a pupil must remain in a particular activity, (d) School time for extracurricular activities, (e) Credit for extracurricular activities, (f) Extracurricular activities record in a pupil's cumulative folder, prepare such a form, (g) Limitations on number of activities a pupil may engage in.
3. Select an activity you would prefer to sponsor, and plan a tentative semester's program for such activity.
4. How can teachers find time to sponsor extracurricular activities?
5. Ask your homeroom group to discuss and prepare a plan for the school organization of extracurricular activities.
6. Some of your pupils are not interested in any extraclass activities. How can you arouse their interest?

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FLAUM, L. S. "An Activity-Seminar Guidance Program," *School Activities*, Vol. 17, pp. 285-287, April, 1946. The author, a school superintendent, after stating the major weakness of the traditional extracurricular program, describes a plan for a comprehensive extracurricular program. This is a six-period day schedule of 1-hour periods, all study periods eliminated, the pupil carrying four major subjects, plus an activity period and music or physical education. A method of procedure is described, the "seminary system" explained in some detail.

FLAUM, L. S.: "Activities Contribute to Growth," *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 38, pp. 53-54, December, 1946. In discussing this "creative activity" program, the author, a school superintendent, declares it to be the "result of experimentation and accurate record keeping to determine the use value of activities in relation to the developmental needs of pupils." He lists seven areas of activity and concludes these activities have an educational value in personality development that is "intensely valuable" and that they justify the time spent on them.

PATTY, W. W.: "To Complement or to Supplement?" *School Activities*, Vol. 16, pp. 203-204, February, 1945. The author, a professor of education, states first the case for the complementary function of extracurricular activities as those activities which "help fulfill the educational contributions of the curricular offerings." The arguments are given, pro and con, for such activities. The supplemental plan is called one answer to one of the pressing problems of every school administrator—how to increase the educational opportunities of pupils without increasing the school budget. It arranges a program as different in content as possible from offerings in the curricular program, thus broadening educational opportunities. It is especially valuable in small schools. In the opinion of the author, the supplemental plan makes a more superior contribution to the school program than the complementary plan. Thoughtful administrators are urged to give serious attention to its adoption.

PATTY, W. W.: "What Tenure for Activities?" *School Activities*, Vol. 16, pp. 283-286, April, 1945. There should be two types of tenure for extracurricular activities according to the author: a permanent tenure plan and a

rotating plan. He lists those activity organizations which should be regarded as permanent and gives five qualifications which an extracurricular activity should possess to qualify for such a status. A rotating plan is proposed for those clubs that have "significant educational values, but for which there are only sporadic or seasonal demands." This is of special value in the small school. A chart is pictured showing how the rotating plan may provide continuous and periodic tenure for extracurricular activities in a typical small high school. The advantages of such a plan for both pupil and teacher are discussed.

RAY, P. D.: "A Program for Extracurricular Speech Activities," *School Activities*, Vol. 17, pp. 204-206, February, 1946. The author, director of speech activities in secondary schools in Texas, writes enthusiastically of a speech-arts program. She gives four points of emphasis in the program, the first of which is to provide opportunities for those "eager but average boys and girls who are usually left out." The satisfying results listed after 1-year existence are (1) timid students become better adjusted, and (2) students who received no special attention before this program find school a happier place. An outline of the plan and organization of the project is given.

The Community and the Guidance Program

Guidance workers must furnish leadership in the education of our boys and girls. This leadership will look into every nook and cranny of our communities for sources of help in this, our most important job. For schools are not provided that teachers may teach but that pupils may learn and grow and correct their mistakes and do those things which good citizens do: work, give, and fight for things that are right and against the wrong; vote, hold office, and pay taxes; establish homes, rear children, and support schools for their own and their neighbors' children. This list could be extended, but enough has been said to underline the importance of an education far beyond the learning of the fundamental subjects, important as these are.

Into this program of development of our youth must come all the forces of the community whose purposes are for good rather than for selfish, sordid motives. Among these is the Parent-Teacher Association, the most vitally interested group in the community and the group which has unlimited possi-

bilities of cooperation in the guidance program. The difficulty usually with the P.T.A. is that entirely too few parents are active and too often those who are active are ones whose children need this cooperation least. Our school leaders must learn the immense possibilities of the P.T.A. as an adult education organization. They must realize that when problems are solved in the home, they do not have to be solved at school. They must know, however, that such activities usually bring late fruit and they must be willing to see small gains, provided that the gains can be continuous.

Other organizations of the community which can perform a vital function in the guidance program are the Y.W.C.A., the Y.M.C.A., and the Roman Catholic and the Jewish young peoples' organizations set up specifically for the purpose of making better men and women of our young people. Here fine, devoted, experienced leaders of youth give their talents for little or no monetary return. They have the priceless privilege of seeing these young people grow up and of observing the impact on their personalities of forces that affect them in "unconstrained situations"—in other words, when no one of authority is looking. This is the time the real boy or girl stands forth in his true character. The personnel of these organizations have many opportunities to furnish helpful guidance to young people, and also they can be of invaluable help to teachers and principals of our schools. Many a boy or girl has not been really understood by a teacher until the latter has made the acquaintance of such youth leaders.

Other people who are not sufficiently well known by teachers of our boys and girls are the leaders of the Boy and Girl Scouts and the leaders of the Camp Fire Girls. It must be realized that these people give their time regularly and generously to our boys and girls with the sole aim of helping with their development. A man or woman who gives at least one evening a week to a troop under these conditions

has invaluable information which he or she will gladly share with any teacher or principal. There comes to mind one man who for the past 11 years has driven or walked 4 miles weekly to serve a Boy Scout troop. He knows his boys.

In this connection, some of the best vocational guidance done anywhere is in a Scout troop as a boy climbs the ladder of achievement toward becoming an Eagle Scout or passing his Merit Badge tests. Many a boy has found his life's vocation among the approximately 112 tasks that may be done to earn merit badges. Similar opportunities are offered in the girls' organizations. Without going into details, it is profitable to list other organizations which may and do give invaluable service to boys and girls. For example, there are such organizations as the Kiwanis Club, with its international program of vocational guidance, the Rotary Club with its world-wide service to crippled children, and the Lions International, with its service for boys and girls with defective vision. While these organizations perform many other services for young people, they are not alone. Other service clubs, such as the Exchange Club, perform admirably. The teacher who wants help from such organizations need only go to them with an important problem, and they are glad to respond. We shall close this discussion by merely mentioning a few of the many other groups just waiting to be asked for help. Sunday schools, churches, men's Bible classes, chambers of commerce, businessmen's associations, business and professional women's clubs, the American Association of University Women, civic clubs, and many other groups are eager to help. In fact, the teacher who really wants to make use of such organizations will do well to have on her wall or in her desk where it is easily accessible a list of such organizations with their leaders' names, addresses, and telephone numbers. For the teacher's convenience, such a form is provided below.

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. No secondary school should introduce a guidance program without providing for utilization of many community resources. List as many as you can.
2. Can a public school teacher afford to serve as a leader of the Boy or Girl Scouts?
- 3 Teachers sometimes forget that they ought to become members of executive boards or committees of various welfare or service organizations. Suggest procedures for bringing this about.

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- BAGLEY, W. C. "The Problem of Educating for Community Responsibility," *School and Society*, Vol. 63, pp. 3-4, January, 1946. This is a brief review of the findings of the director of the Bureau of Institutional Research at the University of Illinois, who has found on the basis of "various educational surveys" that there is too much apathy and unconcern about civic responsibility and an unwillingness to accept it. He believes that there is need of education for community responsibility and that the schools should redouble their efforts toward that goal. A number of ways of doing this are mentioned. Dr. Bagley goes a step further and advocates a program of adult education. ". . . this would seem to be almost the only solution, for many of the serious problems involved are unsuitable for discussion in classes of children and youth."
- BARRETT, L. A.: "Salida Schools Perform Community Services," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 109, pp. 19-42, August, 1944. A threefold accomplishment results from active cooperation between the school and

the community in a Colorado town of 5,000 people. The author, who is the school superintendent, says that actual service is performed for the community, that the pupils build up excellent public relations for the school, and that they in return receive practical and educational experience as well as training in good citizenship. A number of specific services are described. The public schools are "missing a golden opportunity if they fail to do work of this type which does not interfere with instruction."

CONOVER, J. F., and E. J. SABISTON: "Play's the Thing," *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 39, p. 49, April, 1947. The authors, in briefly describing the excellent summer recreation program of Terre Haute, say the program is made possible through the cooperation among the school, the city, the park board, community groups, newspapers, and other agencies. Good citizenship, character development, and health checkup and education are among the guidance values stressed.

EAVES, R. W.: "Elementary Schools Have a Part to Play in Community Life," *Nation's Schools*, Vol. 36, p. 46, November, 1945. This is a digest of the Twenty-fourth Yearbook of the Department of Elementary School Principals of the National Educational Association. The committee preparing the yearbook "made an effort to obtain material representing the most outstanding school programs emphasizing various phases of school and community relationships for both rural and urban communities." The essence of the various chapters is noted and several related articles are mentioned.

FLATT, J. D.: "Twin Falls Has Guidance Know-how," *School Executive*, Vol. 65, pp. 47-48, January, 1946. In the opinion of the author, principal of a high school, community guidance is an important part of the effective school guidance program briefly described here. The

aid of men's service clubs is obtained for the guidance work, and speakers from various civic organizations and professions are brought in. Senior students are allowed to take training in downtown establishments for credit.

HALBERSTADT, WILLIAM: "The Dads' Club—for School and Community," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 109, p. 34, July, 1944. The author contends too little attention is being given to a problem of prime importance in the postwar world—the parent. For the fathers in particular and the community in general, he recommends Dads' Clubs. The author is president of such an organization. How to be intelligent about their own children's education and how to untangle the mass of information about educational opportunities and reconstruction for youthful ex-service men are "typical of the many problems which are being answered by Dads' Clubs now in existence." The accomplishments of specific clubs are given. A Dads' Club brings together a group of men who as individuals offer the assistance of mature, unbiased, nonpolitical minds in the analysis and promotion of many projects.

"Students Become Civic Minded," *School Executive*, Vol. 65, p. 43, January, 1946. This is a report of a "new approach to citizenship training" to be made by the senior high schools of Indianapolis. The purpose of the interschool council, which is composed of four pupil leaders from each school, is to promote better relations between schools and to stimulate student interest in civic affairs. It will serve as a liaison between high school students and education subcommittees of various civic organizations, and it will meet with such groups as the city council, board of safety education, board of health, and the state assembly.

Evaluating the Guidance Program

Guidance is probably the most discussed subject in the field of education. Hardly a professional meeting in that field is without its guidance section or division. A school system today without something called a "guidance program" is considered a definite anachronism. Books and articles in the field are rolling off the presses. Research on various guidance problems is being carried on in a number of our graduate schools of education. Guidance programs are being established in the American Occupation Zone in Germany and in many other countries.

A grave danger for the future and a probable reason for the slow progress in guidance is the tendency to assume that when a program has been set up its success has been ensured. Throughout this volume the reader has been frequently reminded that guidance, to be effective, must be a growing, creative affair. However, little has been said about checking on the success of the procedures recommended. The matter of checking on results is the burden of this unit.

Before we attempt to evaluate our accomplishments, we must look back and review our objectives. Very briefly, the purpose throughout the volume has been to assist (1) teachers, (2) principals, and (3) counselors in individualizing the education of their pupils. An endeavor has been made to instill in school people an enthusiasm for the development of the personality of every individual pupil whether his ability is high or low, his personality attractive or unattractive, and his promise great or small. Also, an attempt has been made to provide techniques and tools for accomplishing the objectives set up.

Two types of evaluation will be considered here: one in which suggestions will be made for measuring the success of certain guidance techniques as they are applied to pupils, the other in which a check list will be used which contains techniques and tools generally considered desirable in a guidance program.

The former method of evaluation involves scientific study of the results of guidance procedures. These may be the techniques of individual or group counseling, the comparison of achievement with capacity, of one type of report to parents with another, of the efficacy of one method of teaching occupations with another, and of the efficiency of various types of cumulative records; the effectiveness of various techniques of rating, of the guidance clinic, and of the home-room plan as compared with the core plan, the success of remedial measures in various fields, etc.

For techniques and examples of their use, the reader is referred to Chapter 19 in Davis *et al.*, *Pupil Personnel Service*,¹ published in 1948 by the International Textbook Company in Scranton, Pennsylvania. It is recommended that any school, after a guidance program has been well started,

¹ Frank G. Davis *et al.*, *Pupil Personnel Service*, Chap. 19, International Textbook Company, Scranton, Pa., 1948.

plan to evaluate scientifically some phase of it each year. The value will not be only in the findings. The professional enthusiasm and knowledge that will be a concomitant of the research may be equally worth while.

There are many check lists which will be helpful in evaluating a guidance program. The best known is that developed by the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards and used in the evaluation of guidance programs in secondary schools throughout the United States. A copy of this check list is found in the appendix of *Pupil Personnel Service* mentioned above.

One of the best and most recent evaluation schemes of the check-list type is that developed in the Division of Occupational Information and Guidance of the Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction at Harrisburg, Pa. It is given below.²

SUGGESTIONS ON THE USE OF THIS DEVICE

The criteria contained herein may properly be considered as indications of progress in a guidance program of a public school. If those desiring to conduct a self-evaluation program agree with the statement of general purpose and the guiding statements of philosophy of each division, then the criteria which follow may properly be considered as indications of the ways and means by which the stated purpose of guidance may be achieved. In this respect the criteria become measures of standards against which a particular program of guidance may be evaluated.

One point of credit is allowed for each criterion to which an answer of "Yes" can be made. A check mark can be used to indicate this credit in space provided to the right of each statement.

On this self-evaluating scale a perfect score is 80. Schools may

² Used with permission of Stewart C. Hulslander, director of occupational information and guidance, Pennsylvania State Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa.

desire to plot their rankings by profile or through the construction of thermometer diagrams calibrated on a one-point-value scale.

Theoretically, a score of 100 would represent a perfect guidance program. In view of the fact that there is neither complete agreement nor understanding at the present time as to what constitutes a perfect guidance program, the device is limited to an 80-point score or 80 per cent of a theoretically perfect program.

CRITERIA FOR SELF-EVALUATING GUIDANCE SERVICES IN INDIVIDUAL SCHOOL DISTRICTS

I. Organization

To aid in achieving the general purpose of guidance, the program of guidance should be properly organized and integrated into the total school program as a personalized service effectively employing the personnel and facilities of the school and community.

1. Organized guidance services are available for all pupils in grades 1 through 12. ()
2. Organized guidance services are available for out-of-school persons. ()
3. Guidance is considered as the personal service of a school rather than the subject matter taught. ()
4. The guidance services include facilities for aiding pupil adjustments to good health, social competency, personality improvement, educational attainment, and avocational and vocational achievement. ()
5. Adjustments in school offerings are made on the basis of pupil needs as evidenced through findings in the guidance services. ()
6. There is one person in supervisory charge of all guidance services in a school district. ()
7. There is a functioning guidance advisory committee of representative teachers and administrators. ()
8. There is an average of one certificated school counselor devoting full time to guidance functions for each group of 600 school pupils or fraction thereof. ()

9. There is one homeroom teacher for each group of 35 pupils or fraction thereof. ()
10. There is one class adviser or consultant for each grade in the secondary school ()
11. Faculty committees assist in the development and progress of the guidance service. ()
12. Each faculty member has specific as well as general responsibilities to the guidance service. ()
13. Pupils assist in the development and progress of the guidance service. ()
14. At least one faculty meeting is devoted to guidance activities each year. ()
15. A special room, or rooms, is provided for the use of counselors. ()
16. Counseling quarters meet safety and health standards of the Departments of Public Instruction and Labor and Industry ()
17. Adequate furnishings are provided in the counseling room or rooms, based upon the recommendations of the Department of Public Instruction. ()
- ✓18. The school, directly or in cooperation with employment agencies, places pupils in occupations and institutions of higher learning ()
- ✓19. Meetings are scheduled with individual parents and parent groups for the purpose of making guidance services more effective. ()
- ✓20. Follow-up records of former pupils are analyzed, and the findings are used in reorganizing and adjusting the school to meet the needs of individual pupils. ()

II. Individual Analysis

To aid in achieving the general purpose of guidance, provision should be made in the guidance program to discover, analyze, and utilize historical and developmental data on individuals.

1. The individual cumulative record, initiated when a pupil first enters the school system, provides for a continuing

- record through grade 12 or until the pupil leaves the school. ()
- 2 The cumulative record provides for temporary and permanent recording of pupil information. ()
3. The cumulative record indicates pupil growth and trends. ()
4. The cumulative record is relatively simple to initiate and maintain. ()
5. The cumulative record contains the following items: health, attendance, scholastic achievement, standard tests, personality rating, work experience, hobbies and activities, follow-up record, and personal information. ()
- 6 Cumulative records are utilized by counselors and others in the guidance service ()
7. Follow-up records of former pupils are analyzed, and the findings are utilized in the counseling of individual pupils. ()
8. At least three tests of scholastic aptitude are given pupils during their school life ()
- 9 General achievement tests are given to elementary pupils at least every other year ()
10. Special achievement tests are given during the junior high school period in reading and numbers. ()
11. A vocational interest test is given in the ninth grade. ()
12. A vocational interest test is given at the close of the eleventh or at the beginning of the twelfth grade. ()
13. Special aptitude tests are given on an individual basis to pupils for whom additional information is needed to confirm their objectives further. ()
14. Personality rating is made each year on each pupil by three or more faculty members who have been in position to observe the individual under different conditions. ()
15. Cumulative records are located in a convenient place for use by counselors. ()
16. Provision is made for analyzing, diagnosing, aiding, and correcting maladjusted pupils. ()

17. The drop-out-of-school rate by pupils is below the state average. ()
18. A majority of pupils follow through to graduation with the course which they originally selected. ()
19. Provision is made for pupils to change courses if counseling analysis reveals facts indicating that such a change is desirable. ()
20. Home visitations are made by faculty members for the purpose of better understanding individual pupils. ()

III. Counseling and Group Activities

To aid in achieving the general purpose of guidance, the program of guidance, through individual counseling and group activities, associates and compares properly analyzed historical and developmental data of individuals with properly analyzed facts of social, educational, and vocational demands

1. Each pupil in the junior and senior high school is afforded at least one individual interview each year at a time when the pupil has evidenced adjustment needs. ()
2. Ample pupil and counselor time is available from the school schedule for individual interviewing. ()
3. Pupil referrals are made to the counselor directly by classroom teachers, homeroom teachers, and others for interviewing purposes. ()
4. Individual counseling is shared by all faculty members ()
5. The counselor frequently arranges individual interviews between pupils and faculty members ()
6. Important factual results of the interview are recorded for future reference. ()
7. Follow-up interviews are arranged with pupils for purposes of noting progress on suggested changes and on how well their plans are being accomplished. ()
8. Careful preparation, through a study of available records and other data related to the pupil, usually precedes the interview with the pupil. ()
9. Orientation, educational, personal, and social adjustment

- are emphasized through group guidance activities during the junior high school period. ()
10. At least one homeroom period is devoted to guidance activities each week. ()
 11. At least four assembly programs are specifically organized around guidance objectives each year. ()
 12. A career day or forum is conducted each year for pupils. ()
 13. At least four tours to employing institutions are made each year by twelfth-grade pupils. ()
 14. A survey of occupations is taught each year to ninth-grade pupils for a minimum of 700 minutes. ()
 15. Special problems on occupations, labor management and techniques, and procedures for procuring employment are taught to twelfth-grade pupils for at least 700 minutes each year. ()
 16. Teachers emphasize the potential vocational outlets of the subject matter which they teach. ()
 17. Occupational and adjustment information is available and is used in individual interviews and group guidance activities. ()
 18. Follow-up records of former pupils are analyzed, and the findings are utilized as factual information for counseling purposes. ()
 19. Counseling in the elementary grades is largely carried on by the classroom teacher assisted by the counselor-coordinator and other specialized personnel. ()
 20. The school activities program, organized on the basis of expressed pupil interests, provides for participation in at least one club by every pupil. ()

IV. References and Resources

To aid in achieving the general purpose of guidance, provision should be made in the guidance program for adequate factual information resources.

1. There are at least six professional books on guidance pub-

- lished within the past 6 years available in the library for teachers. ()
2. At least one professional book on guidance or counseling is purchased each year and placed in the library ()
 3. There are a minimum of 25 professional pamphlets on guidance or counseling. ()
 4. There are a minimum of six professional magazines or periodicals containing articles on guidance or counseling. ()
 5. Visual aids for professional use in guidance are available and utilized by teachers. ()
 6. An adequate supply of standard test forms is available. ()
 7. An adequate supply of cumulative record forms is available ()
 8. There are at least six different books, published within the past 6 years, for pupil references in each of the general, occupational information, personal and social adjustment, and educational areas of guidance. ()
 9. At least one guidance reference book is purchased each year for pupil use. ()
 10. There are at least 50 bulletins and pamphlets for pupil reference on the general, occupational information, personal and social adjustment, and educational aspects of guidance. ()
 11. There are at least six current magazines and periodicals containing articles on guidance suitable for pupil use ()
 12. Visual aids suitable for pupil guidance are available and utilized. ()
 13. The *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* is available and utilized in occupational information and guidance. ()
 14. A filing system for unbound occupational and adjustment information is kept up to date and utilized. ()
 15. The financial budget of the school system makes adequate provision for the guidance services. ()
 16. Organizations and individuals of the community are utilized to enrich the guidance program of the school. ()

17. Industries, business places, farms, and other employing institutions are utilized in the guidance program of the school. ()
18. Current catalogues of the major colleges and of other schools which pupils of the school attend are in the library and counseling office. ()
19. Information on available scholarships and other types of financial aid for pupils is available ()
20. Special interests, abilities, and aptitudes of individual pupils are encouraged through availability of reference and resource materials for individual use ()

QUESTIONS AND PROBLEMS

1. Prepare cooperatively a philosophy of education in your school. How much of it is already being followed?
2. Using the rating scheme shown here, evaluate the guidance program in your school. What is the score in each of the four phases?
3. Refer to Chap. 16 in *Pupil Personnel Service* by Davis *et al.* and answer the questions found at the beginning of the chapter. What is your subjective opinion of the comprehensiveness of the program?
4. Prepare a test, and determine how much a pupil knows about occupations (*a*) before a course in the subject, (*b*) after taking the course.
5. Select two groups of approximately equal ability in the same grade. Ascertain what vocational choices have been made. Give one group a course in vocational information. Do not give a course to the other group. At the end of a year determine whether vocational choices in each group are more or less in line with the pupils' abilities.
6. Try out experimentally the classroom teacher's cumula-

tive pupil personnel record (*a*) with a clerk doing all the recording, (*b*) with the pupils writing on their own record sheets all but confidential materials and clerks doing the rest.

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ing pupils to adjust than in correcting maladjustments. A continuous daily evaluation must supplement the annual one.

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